

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

VOL. XIV.

OCTOBER, 1891.

No. I.

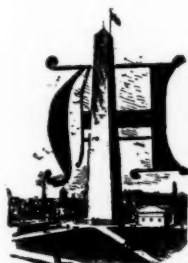
OFFICERS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

JOHN H. VINCENT, *Chancellor*. LEWIS MILLER, *President*. JESSE L. HURLBUT, *Principal*. *Counselors*: LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.; BISHOP H. W. WARREN, D. D.; J. M. GIBSON, D. D.; W. C. WILKINSON, D. D.; EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.; JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D. MISS K. F. KIMBALL, *Office Secretary*. A. M. MARTIN, *General Secretary*. THE REV. A. H. GILLET, *Field Secretary*.

REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

BY JOHN CLARK RIDPATH.



At the beginning of the summer of 1775 the city of the Puritans was held by the British—a thing intolerable to patriotism. But among the patriots themselves there were two parties, a war party and an anti-war party. More properly we might say that there was a party eager for immediate war, war at all hazards, good hot war, and war for independence; while the other party was for war moderately, remotely, possibly, and not at all for independence. But to get the British out of Boston was the common wish of all.

After Lexington and Concord* the heart of all New England had fired to battle-flame. There was a universal rush to arms. The man of New England literally left his plow in the field, his unfinished wheel on the bench, his heated iron in the forge, his sprouted corn in the basket, and, shouldering his flintlock of indescribable pattern, made his way to Boston. Almost twenty thousand of the sturdy descendants of the Puritans gathered around the city. Glorious spectacle, not often repeated in the poor pages of history!

The Colonial Congress and the Provincial Assembly of Massachusetts wrought together. The work of organizing the patriot army was

taken up, and five major-generals were appointed. The first was Artemas Ward, of Shrewsbury, forty-eight years of age, a graduate of Harvard, and a reputable soldier. The second was that Charles Lee who was destined to become a thorn in the pathway of Washington, and to remain what he had always been, an adventurer and soldier of fortune. The third was Philip Schuyler, of New York, brave and patriotic. The fourth was old Israel Putnam, of Salem, now in his fifty-eighth year, but hale and hearty, full of enthusiasm and bluster, headstrong, brave, unequal to great commands, but not wanting in sagacity. The fifth was Dr. Joseph Warren, of Roxbury, patriot and hero.

Among the subordinate officers under General Ward, who held the left wing of the patriot army at Cambridge, the first place ought to be given to Colonel William Prescott, grandfather of the historian. Colonel Richard Gridley was commander of the artillery and of the engineer corps which was detailed by Ward and Putnam for the occupation of the peninsula of Charlestown and the fortification of Bunker Hill. Captain Thomas Knowlton, of Putnam's regiment, commanded the Connecticut Rangers, two hundred strong.

Meanwhile there was hot controversy before the Provincial Committee of Safety* and the Council of War. But the War party triumphed, and on the evening of the 16th of

*Respectively the first armed encounters between the British and Americans in the Revolutionary War, both occurring April 19, 1775. (See "Leading Facts of American History," p. 157.)

*Appointed in October, 1774, by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, with power to act in any emergency.

June an order was passed for the immediate occupation of the Charlestown peninsula and the fortification of Bunker Hill. The general manner of the thing to be done was to throw forward a division of the patriot forces under Prescott and Gridley from the main lines at Cambridge over Charlestown Neck, to Bunker Hill. The forces detailed for the expedition were the regiments of Prescott, Frye, and Bridge, and a fractional body of two hundred Connecticut volunteers. These men were ordered out. The soldiers, if so we may call them, were without discipline in the proper sense and had no uniform. Each man wore the dress which he had on when the war passion struck him at home. Each had a powderhorn, perhaps half full of the precious black grains, of which there were hardly thirty half-barrels in the possession of the patriot army. Each had a pocketful of bullets, cast by himself. Each had a flintlock gun. A few had muskets with bayonets. Massachusetts had a park of artillery consisting of four six-pounders, two of which may still be seen in the top chamber of Bunker Hill monument.

The enterprise was sufficiently perilous. In the harbor, within easy range, lay at anchor six British men-of-war, carrying an aggregate of one hundred and eighty-four guns, and about eleven hundred and eighty men. The outline of Bunker Hill could be easily seen by night from the British ships; but the sentries on the memorable evening, discovering nothing, continued to pace the deck, and repeated their monotonous "All is well" in easy hearing of the patriot pickets on shore.

We here come to one of the critical points in the strategy of Bunker Hill. The orders issued to Prescott and Gridley were distinctly to take possession of Bunker Hill, and to fortify it in such manner that the guns mounted there might command the British shipping and the city of Boston. For a century the phraseology of history has been that the officers in charge of the expedition "made a mistake" in the darkness, and marched to Breed's Hill instead of Bunker Hill. A moment's reflection, however, will show the absurdity of this hypothesis. There was no mistake at

all. The patriot commanders knew Bunker Hill as well as they knew the parade ground at Cambridge. They knew the whole peninsula down to Morton's Point. Dr. Warren had doubtless been in Charlestown a hundred times. General Putnam during the night rode back and forth several times over Bunker Hill, and knew well the topography* of the place. Prescott and Gridley and perhaps one half of their men knew the height of Bunker Hill, which had been easily visible to them from their camp during the past month.

Two reasons may be assigned, indeed three, for the construction which Prescott and Gridley put upon their orders. The first was that the name Bunker Hill might easily be understood to include the other elevations around Charlestown. The name Breed's Hill was not known at the time the battle was fought.

The elevation on the slopes of which the conflict occurred was called Breed's pasture, the name of Breed's Hill appearing for the first time in a map made shortly after the battle. The particular ground where the monument now stands was known as Russell's pasture. Another part of the ground fought over on the memorable day was called Green's pasture. Prescott and Gridley might, with some latitude, construe all these grounds as being a part of Bunker Hill and exercise their discretion in choosing the particular place for the redoubt.

A second reason for going to Breed's Hill instead of Bunker Hill was the loose character of the discipline as yet prevailing in the so-called Continental army. Everything, including military subordination, was at that date inchoate.† The notion of strict construction had not taken possession of the minds of the officers. They were possessed of the one thought of doing the work—of getting at the enemy and driving him from his nest in Boston. Warren and Putnam, Gridley and Prescott were in the precise frame of mind to say within themselves, as they marched down from Charlestown Neck, "What's the differ-



* Greek, *topos*, place, and *graphein*, to write. "The exact and scientific delineation and description in minute detail of any place or region."

† [In 'ko ate.] Latin, *inchoare*, to begin. Recently begun, incipient.

ence which hill we occupy? Let us look around and choose our place."

But the prevailing motive remains to be given. Breed's Hill was fully a third of a mile, nearly half a mile, nearer to Boston than was Bunker



Israel Putnam

hurling at him a challenge which must be accepted immediately.

The precise number of men whom Prescott, Frye, Bridge, and Gridley led forward across the Neck and over Bunker Hill down to Breed's pasture on that memorable night may never be known. Some authorities say a thousand only. Others place the number as high as fifteen hundred. Let us say twelve hundred, and we shall not be far from the truth. The ground for the redoubt was chosen by Colonel Gridley. The advance party carried dark lanterns. The

Hill. To occupy Breed's Hill or Breed's pasture, meant battle for a certainty, and *on the morrow!* The War party having prevailed in the Committee of Safety, it now pressed its advantage to the utmost by dashing into the very face of the enemy and



Isaac Warren

long summer twilight forbade an early march. The Neck was passed at nine o'clock. The patriots marched silently over Bunker Hill and reached Breed's pasture. Gridley laid out the lines of the fortification in person, and the

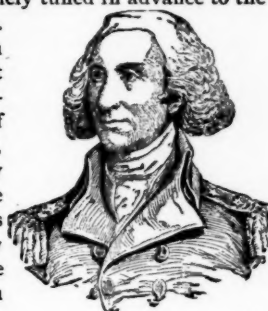


Charles Lee

work was begun at midnight. Silence was enjoined and carefully observed. The men with their spades worked in relays of four or five hundred each. The ground selected was eight rods square, and within this square an

irregular parapet* was constructed by digging and throwing up the earth.

Zeal and enthusiasm prevailed. It is doubtful whether any other body of raw recruits was ever more safely tuned in advance to the music of battle. The construction of the redoubt proceeded rapidly. The flag of New England, with its solitary pine-tree in the upper corner, was raised, and by early dawn the works, except on the northern side, were fairly complete.



John Schuyler

One thing remained to the astonished British, or rather one of two things: to drive the patriots from the peninsula of Charlestown or be themselves expelled from Boston. There could be little doubt which horn of the alternative they would seize. While the Americans ensconced themselves in their redoubt, strengthened their position somewhat, established their lines, and, unfortunately, ate up their rations, the British prepared by sea and land for the battle.

It was already noonday when

the patriots, now in full occupation of Breed's Hill, finally threw aside their intrenching tools, and made ready for the issue. Meanwhile the British were busy. Their "All is well" of the previous night had suddenly



Artemas Ward

given place to a very different note. With sunrise, the preparations were begun for

* [Par'a-pet.] Latin, *parare*, to guard, and *pectus*, breast. A wall or rampart rising breast-high.

THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.



Plan of the Battle of Bunker Hill.

action. The man-of-war, *Lively*, carrying twenty guns and a hundred and thirty marines, was brought around from her anchorage near Morton's Point to a position in Charles River opposite Charlestown. The *Glasgow* took her position farther to the west, as if to command the Neck. The British battery on Copp's Hill—which is the elevation on the Boston side corresponding to the Breed's Hill summit—opened fire. The vessels joined the chorus, and shot and "carcasses" began to fall in the vicinity of the redoubt. One man was killed; but Colonel Prescott walked back and forth upon the parapet in scorn of the ineffective cannonade.

The patriots in the redoubt and behind the adjacent stone fences had during the night received the personal inspiration and touch of at least two of the bravest men of the times. These were Generals Putnam and Warren. The former had been up during the whole night. Two or three times he had ridden

back and forth from Cambridge to the scene of the coming battle. We are not here to decide whether or not he was really commander on the memorable day—whether the honor of the victorious defeat belongs to him rather than to Prescott and Gridley. The reader may for himself consult Frothingham, Dr. Tarbox, and the rest. But Putnam was at Bunker Hill, and no mistake. He was there in glorious wrath, encouraging the men, counseling, if not actually commanding, in the preparations.

So likewise was the brave Warren. The tradition, seemingly well authenticated, runs to the effect that these patriot officers, the one certainly a major-general and the other of like rank under the commission of the Provincial authorities, both waived their rights in favor of the junior commanders and fought as privates in the trenches—a thing not only possible, but probable; for the men of Breed's pasture were there individually and collectively to fight the battle of their country with-

out much regard to him who should pronounce the word "Fire."

The British commanders in Boston immediately accepted the challenge, and Generals Gage and Clinton gave orders that a sufficient force be landed at Morton's Point to capture the redoubt and drive the rebels from the peninsula. The expedition was entrusted to General Howe. By noonday the preparations were complete, and a formidable division of the British army, at least two thousand four hundred strong, was carried across and landed at Morton's Point. The British plan of battle was to advance against the American left, which was extended in a northeasterly direction from the redoubt* behind a barricade of stone and rail fences that ran down the slope toward the Mystic River. General Howe was to carry this part of the field by a charge, turn to the left, attack the redoubt in the rear, storm the hill, and cut off the retreat of the patriots.

The day was hot. It was high summer. The owners of the land on the hill slopes round about had just cut their hay. Some of it was thrown up in cocks, and the rest lay in wind-row or swath here and there. It required two or three hours for the British to get themselves well landed and re-formed for the advance, and it was nearly three o'clock before the column moved forward.

The direction was nearly westward. The British army was in excellent discipline. The red-coated columns swung into line, and moved forward with the precision of geometry. The equipment, too, was excellent.

*"The word is generally used for a small inclosed work of various forms, serving mainly as a temporary field-work." An outwork placed within another outwork. From the Latin participle *reductus*, led back.

The American line in front had the redoubt at its right extremity. Next to this were the Connecticut troops, behind a rude breastwork extending down the slope for about seven hundred feet. Farther on, the fences, improved by the packing of new-mown hay against them, furnished a tolerably effective breastwork for the patriots. Prescott's command proper occupied the redoubt. General

Warren was also within the works. Gridley, with his artillery, was on the eastern slope, between the breastworks and the rail fence. The latter was held for the most part by the men of New Hampshire. It was a well-formed battle-line; the position was good. But the great question was whether the undisciplined yeomen of New England, with their hunting shirts and grotesque caps and powderhorns and pockets full of bullets that must be

rammed down one at a time with a hickory rod, would stand—could stand—the assault of British regulars long disciplined and hardened in the wars of Europe.

The approach of the British columns was as steady as the coming of an eclipse. On it came. Arms and epaulets flashed in the

summer sun. The red lines swayed and waved as they rose over Morton's Hill and swept across the intervening lowland. The patriot officers had strictly ordered their men to withhold their fire until the enemy was near at hand. The tradition is that the Americans were told not to fire until they could see the buttons on the coats of the British soldiers, and then to take good aim. It was a dreadful, murderous business; but quite necessary for civilization and liberty. The men were also directed to shoot low, to aim at the waistbands, and to pick off the commanders. Possibly the code of war was



W. Howe



J. Mifflin



Thos. Gage

a little infringed. But, after all, as General Sherman was wont frankly to say, "Soldiers fight to kill, and war itself is hell."

It was about half past three o'clock when the buttons and belt-plates of the British soldiers came in easy sight of the patriots. Within the redoubt and behind the breastworks and fences reaching down toward the Mystic there was perfect silence. Then the moment came. Prescott shouted the dreadful command, "Fire!" Considering the numbers engaged and the extent of the lines, there was never a more fatal discharge than that which instantly burst from the patriot lines. The whole British front withered in the blast. Instantly the Americans reload. Another instant, and the same deadly aim is taken. Then again, "Fire!" The enemy is either on the earth or broken and flying. It takes much, and has taken much for many centuries, to put a British soldier to flight; but the red column went to nothing on the slope of Breed's pasture, and for a brief period it seemed that victory had perched on the rude redoubt which crowned the summit.

But the repulse of the enemy was brief. Out of the range of the American rifles and muskets, the British were quickly re-formed. The artillery was brought into more favorable position, and in an incredibly short time the assaulting columns were ready for a second advance. If at this period the patriots could have been reinforced and resupplied with ammunition and food, it can hardly be doubted that the story of Bunker Hill would have a different ending on the page of history. But the British ships had now made the passage of Charlestown Neck more dangerous than before. General Ward had failed to provide for reinforcements and supplies. General Putnam, storming around after his manner, could do nothing but lend encouragement when the men were more in need of powder, bullets, and coffee. The Americans had eaten up their one-day's rations, and were already hungry and thirsty, even to exhaustion. On the other side, though there had been a deadly repulse, there were abundance, steadiness of discipline, strong reinforcements at hand, and the sting and humiliation of temporary defeat.

By this time the shells from the British ships had set the village of Charlestown on fire, and the two or three hundred wooden houses which composed the hamlet were a sea of flame and smoke. The re-formed

British columns again in perfect order cross the lowlands between Morton's Hill and Breed's pasture. The advance is as steady as before, and at a rapid pace. Again the patriots withhold their fire. The British soldiers, as they sweep up the slope, might well believe, from the silence, that there is to be no further resistance. But again the lull is broken by the command of Prescott; and again the sheet of flame leaps from right to left; and again the withering volley smites the advancing lines with utter destruction. The front column is swept to death and ruin at the first discharge. The rear lines stagger, advance a moment, receive a second volley, break, and fall back in swift retreat. Nor can the shattered ranks be stayed until they have reached the river and found safety out of the range of the American muskets.

At this point it might be said that no charge in modern warfare had been more fatal to those making it than were the two attacks made by the British on the afternoon of the 17th of June. The British commanders were maddened by the result. Strong reinforcements were quickly thrown across the river and landed at a favorable point southwest of Morton's Hill. Four hundred marines* were taken from the ships and added to the column. The artillery of the enemy was arranged so as to bear with greater effect on the American position. The defeated regiments were consolidated, and General Clinton crossed over in a boat, to command the right wing in the final charge. The British had now learned the weak place in the American defenses, and to that point, several hundred yards eastward from the redoubt, General Howe directed his advance. The British guns had got the range of the American breastworks, and the Provincials had for the most part gathered in the redoubt for the final stand.

It was about five o'clock when the oncoming British column for the third time advanced up the slope, firing as they came. The ammunition of the patriots was now almost exhausted; but they were hot with battle, and little disposed to yield. It required no exhortation to keep them at their post. Once more they leveled their arms and delivered their volleys against the advancing lines. There was a momentary stagger; but the heavy columns closed and pressed on.

* Soldiers serving on shipboard; sea soldiers.

The line of the stone fence and breastworks was carried, and the British began to envelop the redoubt. Still the patriots fired. But the British began to mount the parapet. The works were only about six feet in height, and were quickly scaled. There was fighting along the crest. The butts of patriot muskets clashed against the leveled bayonets of

of Roxbury* entered the Pantheon† of History!

The rest was a scramble, a *mêlée*.‡ General Putnam had made some arrangements for holding Bunker Hill as a point of resistance; but when Breed's Hill was once surrendered, the issue was decided, and the whole peninsula must go to the enemy. The Americans

fell back in broken squads and detachments from the scene; they crossed Bunker Hill and during the night made their way over the Neck to the lines in Cambridge.

As to results, the victory remained to the British; that is to say, a well-disciplined British army of nearly three thousand men, supported by a fleet of men-of-war, had carried a position held by twelve hundred patriot militiamen without discipline, without uniform, armed only with extemporized rifles and muskets, and fighting only for—*freedom*!

The losses were heavy, especially on the side of the British. The officers suffered much, nineteen of whom were killed and seventy wounded. Major Pitcairn and Colonel Abercrombie were among the slain; also Majors Williams and Speedlove. Of the rank and file, two hundred and seven were killed outright, and seven hundred and fifty-eight wounded, making a total of ten hundred and fifty-four. On the American



Battle of Bunker Hill.

the enemy. There was fighting inside and out. But resistance was no longer useful to patriotism, and Prescott attempted to withdraw his men. There was no disposition to fly, and but little to obey the order. Most of the Americans *went out of the redoubt backwards*! Last of all to leave that scene of glory was Warren himself, fighting as a common soldier. A moment afterward a British ball crashed through his brain, and the hero

side the loss was one hundred and forty-five in killed and missing, and three hundred and four wounded, making a total of four

* In Massachusetts. The birthplace of Warren.

† [Pan'the-on.] Greek, *pas*, *pan*, all, and *theos*, a god. A temple dedicated to all the gods. Especially applied to the magnificent building erected at Rome by Agrippa, 25 B. C.

‡ A hand to hand combat. From the French verb, *mêler*, to mingle.

hundred and forty-nine. The severity of the battle—its dreadful character—may be noted from the fact that on each side fully one-third of those engaged were either killed or wounded!

The result was INDEPENDENCE. After Bunker Hill, the tide set all one way. The conservative patriot went over with all his heart to the war patriot. He touched his el-

bow. He became a rebel as much as the other. The heat of uncompromising rebellion rose with the summer. It gathered ever increasing volume, until the great Congress of the Revolution, convening at Philadelphia, took up the question of Independence. After that the result was no longer doubtful. America was destined henceforth to be AMERICA, and not Canada or Australia.

DOMESTIC AND SOCIAL LIFE OF THE COLONISTS.*

BY EDWARD EVERETT HALE.

I.

IN the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific course for this year, American history has a prominent place. And all of us, as 1892 comes on, are more interested than ever in the series of discoveries and other events which have led up to the America of to-day. I shall try, in this series of papers, to contribute what may be called the local color to the pictures of that history, as the panorama unrolls itself.

C. L. S. C. readers in different parts of the nation have their own special facilities for making such study of the forms of life in one region and another as we are trying to make together. I shall be very glad to receive from correspondents in different parts of the country any memoranda as to what they may think curious in social habits and in the ways of life, which have been passed by by writers on manners or on history. On my part, I will try to make some suggestions which may help readers in constructing correct pictures of these successive phases.

There are a hundred and fifteen mysterious years, which pass by between the 1492 of the discovery of the West Indies by Columbus, and the settlement at Jamestown which we have been used to call the first permanent settlement in the United States. After the United States purchased Florida and New Mexico, Jamestown was no longer the earliest settlement. The settlement at St. Augustine in Florida was made in the year 1565, and the settlement at Santa Fé was made in the year 1595. Oddly enough, it happens that, of the present territory of the United States, the only part of which the English

nation ever took formal possession according to the custom of Columbus and his successors, was that western Pacific coast which fell into the possession of the United States almost the last of its territories.

In the year 1579, Sir Francis Drake, on his celebrated voyage around the world, repaired his one remaining vessel in a bay near where the present city of San Francisco stands, and there he took possession of the country. He planted a post, on which he nailed a silver shilling with the head of Queen Elizabeth upon it, and he fastened to this post a plate of metal, on which was an inscription stating that he had spent some weeks there, and that he took possession of the country in her name. Such was the formality of the time in taking possession of newly acquired country; Cortes had done the same when he took possession of Southern California, and Columbus did the same as he discovered different islands and when he took possession of the mainland. In point of fact, however, England never took possession of California in consequence of Drake's discovery; and when the United States acquired it after the Mexican war, the fact that Drake had discovered it counted but little toward the consent of the Mexicans to the cession which was forced upon them.

Of all this sixteenth century, the late Mr. Samuel F. Haven, one of our most distinguished students of history, used to say that it was the "mythical age" of the United States. During this century, different voyagers were making observations on the coast. At the end of the century the coast was quite well known, and names had been given to the more important points, bays, and rivers. Many of those names have since been

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

changed, but some of them were permanent.

After the settlement made by the Spaniards at St. Augustine, after they broke up the French settlement on the coast of Florida, Raleigh attempted with steady pertinacity to colonize the coast of North Carolina. He would have succeeded, probably, but for the outbreak of the war with Spain and the terror of the Spanish Armada.* The campaign against the Armada required all the naval power which England could furnish, and it was impossible to interest people in schemes for colonization while that struggle for existence was going on. Before it was over, the infant colony had been swept away.

In 1602, Gosnold made his timid attempt at the mouth of Buzzard's Bay. But it was not till 1607 that people of English blood made any permanent establishment. This was the establishment of the colony at Jamestown.

These are but very few dates for the history for more than a hundred years, of a sea-coast which was to be alive with cities and to maintain a large population of the descendants of Englishmen. To say the truth, however, that sea-coast was not very attractive to explorers. They tried for gold and silver, and they found none. They used to carry home rocks with mica in them or iron pyrites,† but the goldsmiths at home very soon found out that these were not ores of the precious metals.

The Indians of the Carolinas were more highly civilized than those of the North, and Raleigh's explorers carried home accounts of their comfortable and pretty houses, and of their large fields of Indian corn. There still exists in the British Museum a large and curious series of water-color pictures—some of plants, some of animals, some of men and women—which were made by White, an artist of ability, who went out with the colony of Raleigh. These pictures fell into the hands of Sir Hans Sloane, a celebrated naturalist of the last century, and with his collection came into the possession of the British Museum. They are undoubtedly the first

works of art executed in this country, and went home in the portfolio of White when he returned with the unsuccessful colony which Lane had taken out in the year 1585. Among these pictures of White's there is one of an Indian house of those days, and beside the house is a good representation of an Indian cornfield. It would be called a good cornfield to-day, and it shows that the southern Indians worked with quite sufficient skill in the production of their harvest.



Summer Huts of California Indians.

FROM BARTLETT'S JOURNAL.

Rather more than a hundred years ago, Anthony Wayne, in describing the Indian cornfields of the Shawnees in our present state of Ohio, said they were the finest cornfields he had ever seen. These are two good authorities as to native customs, one as early as 1585, the other as late as 1794, which show that the whites had nothing to teach the Indians as to the cultivation of the great article of food in this country.

But, on the other hand, when an explorer or adventurer landed on the seacoast, though he might find productive cornfields, he did not find anything else which was very attractive. On the New England coast, if he found any Indians at all, he found Indians of the very lowest grade. The Indians of the Algonquin [al-gon'kin] family, to which the New England tribes belonged, were the most uninteresting of the great groups into which the American Indians have been divided. The Iroquois [ir-o-kwa'], or Five Nations, in New York and Pennsylvania, had gone much

* The great naval armament sent by King Philip II. of Spain in 1588 for the conquest of England.

† [Py-rî'tēs.] A combination of sulphur with iron; a very common mineral, of a yellowish metallic luster.

further in the arts; the Cherokees, Choctaws, and Creeks of the Gulf of Mexico had gone further yet. These different groups of Indians had little to do with each other excepting in war. All of them were savage enough to dissuade adventurers from attempting to settle among them, and there seemed but few natural advantages to be gained in such settlement.

On the coast, however, particularly to the northward, there was a great inducement for adventure offered by the enormous supplies of fish. There are students who would tell us that, before the great discovery made by Cabot and registered in history, the fisher-



Seal Fishery. From an old print.

men of Biscay—that is of northern Spain and western France—knew of the fishing-banks of the coast of America. They could hardly have fished there without finding that there was land to the west of them, and without touching on those lands. But whether there were or were not one or more dismal islands in that region was a matter in which nobody was interested, and these fishermen went out and returned with their annual harvest, without the fact of their having sometimes touched on inhospitable coasts attracting European attention. I cannot but wish that some adventurous young American student would take the pains, in foreign travel, of making a careful examination of the older documents and traditions, as they still must exist, on the western shores of France and the northern shores of Spain, to see how far this suggestion may be verified in written annals which are still existing.

Whether this statement of a discovery before Cabot be or be not true, it is certain that the fishermen of Europe very soon availed themselves of his discovery, and that

through the whole of the "mythical century" the coast of the United States was largely visited by these people. This is the reason why, as soon as our written history begins, we find the people who landed here speaking as if they landed in a country of which something was known. This something known was what had been said by returning fishermen who had touched on the coast and had made a temporary stay there. And after the first settlements were made, quite aside from the movements of the settlers themselves, there was always a certain communication with Europe carried on by "the fishermen," who were spoken of almost as if they were a separate race. They came and went when they chose, but might be relied upon as certain to appear with every year and to depart with every autumn, and as maintaining an irregular communication with Europe which supplemented the regular adventures of the several colonies.

Whether the first settler was on Roanoke Island, at Newport News, at Manhattan, at Plymouth, or in Boston Bay, he must be remembered as having much to do with fish and with fishermen. If he did not know the arts of the fisherman when he came, he learned them soon. And he had close dealings with the professional fishermen. Thus the Pilgrim colony at New Plymouth failed, commercially speaking, in their own attempts to fish, set up stages, dry fish, and trade with them to England. But they found they could buy furs of the natives for English goods—beads and cloth, for instance—sell these furs to the fishermen for such goods, and make a profitable business. In a generation they and their children learned how to fish, greatly to their own benefit and to that of mankind. But while they were learning that business, they were acting as intermediary tradesmen between the natives and the fishermen in their annual voyages.

It was not long, again, before the colonies were in trade with each other. The Pilgrim Fathers at Plymouth sent such goods as they had to a trading-house which they established at Manomet, on the south side of Cape Cod, and there dealt with the Dutch who came from Manhattan. The Dutch sent them sugar, Holland linen, stuffs, etc., and curiously enough, they sent tobacco to the Dutch. Afterward the Dutch obtained their tobacco direct from Virginia. It will be seen that, by buying the Holland linens and woollens di-

rect, they avoided the duties which such articles would have borne had they come to them through England.

One of the most curious features of such trade was the purchasing of food from the Indians. We are apt to think of savages as improvident and unable to lay up stores for the future. But no one would have lived in New England who had not provided in summer for the long winter. And from the very first the New Englanders found that they could buy corn from the Indians in the valley of the Connecticut. It may be doubted whether the towns in the neighborhood of Boston Bay ever raised all their own bread-stuffs. It is certain that in 1631 they were dependent on the supplies which they received from England, and as early as 1634 they were buying corn from the Indians who had the fertile valley of the Connecticut River to draw upon.

We look back with curious interest to see in what sort of houses these people lived, what clothes they wore, what tools they handled, and what weapons they used. It is one of the annoying things in history that just such matters, which give what I called the local color to the scene, are omitted at the time people write, because they consider them as of no importance. The first settlers, alas! were not generally artists. It would be difficult now to find five drawings, excepting portraits, made in this country between White's time, or 1585, and the end of the next century. On the corner of a Dutch map which belongs in the middle of the century, is represented a group of Indians and a group of tradesmen; but how far this is the imagination of some Dutch illustrator it is impossible to say.

As to the houses, we are a little more fortunate. On the first page of the Massachusetts Record, among the articles in a rough list which were to be provided for the colony at Salem, there is mentioned "paper for windows." There are other evidences that the use of glass in windows was rare, and that it came in only gradually afterward. A window was still what it is in its derivation, a "wind door," the name being given to the shutter which closed the aperture originally, and not to the aperture itself. In the storms

of winter, these wind-doors must often have been closed, and the people were thrown back on such lights as they could use within.

The early history of New England shows that thatch was a good deal used on the first houses. It is a matter of record that the first meeting-house in Boston was thatched, and the early fires, of which they had many, sometimes resulted from the burning of thatch, where badly built chimneys had let sparks pass through. But it could not have been long before they saw the advantage of covering their cabins at least with hemlock bark, as a logging-camp is now covered in the wilderness, or with the shingles which were



Pioneer's Cabin. From a sketch by Washington Allston.

made so easily as soon as they established sawmills. And accordingly we find shingles spoken of at a very early date.

Many houses are still standing which run back as far as 1633 or 1634. You might ride by one of them, observing that there was an old-fashioned house; but it does not differ very much from the architecture of houses for a hundred years after. You will often be told, in one of our country towns in New England, that the projection of the second story belongs to the time when they had to fire down from above upon Indians who were assaulting the doors. But this is sheer nonsense. Precisely the same projection of the second story may be observed in English houses of the same date. While the early colonists of Massachusetts still hoped that Matthew Cradock, who had been the president of the Massachusetts Company in England,

would come over, they built for him a brick house, on a piece of land which was reserved for him in Medford, which was then called Mystic. That house is still standing, and is preserved as the oldest monument of that town. It is probably, indeed, the oldest house in the state of Massachusetts. It is substantially built, and with proper care there is no reason why it should not stand for two hundred and fifty years more, and be a comfortable home all that time.

Tradition is not very reliable, and many a bit of home furniture is still fondly preserved, in one household and another, of which it is said that it was brought over in the *Mayflower* with the Pilgrims. This has been said so often that it is a common joke in New England to speak of the *Mayflower* as if she had been in the furniture trade. Of the insecurity of such tradition, there is a funny illustration in the fact that, for a long series of years, certain teacups and saucers of Dutch earthenware were always spoken of as having come over in the *Mayflower*. Some unromantic antiquarian called attention, however, to the fact that the tea-trade of Holland did not begin till the middle of the century, so that it was impossible that there should have been any teacups or saucers at that time.

The reader, then, who has faithfully worked up his genealogy to the sixty-four men and the sixty-four women who were his ancestors in some year between 1630 and 1640, must imagine them to be people not afraid of work nor ashamed of it. They had not come here expecting to pick up gold on the surface.

Some of them had come here to trade. Some of them had come here for fish. A very large majority of them, if they came to New England, had come for conscientious reasons. Whether they meant to work or not, they had to work when they came here. Domestic service soon broke down, in a country where any one could have land, could have wood for the cutting, could have game for the shooting, and could have corn for the planting. The woman led a very hard life who could not do her own work at home, and a man had no success who could not attend to every detail of his own household. Both in England and in this country customs were much simpler than they are now. I have been in the house of an English baronet who died about the year 1600, and it is not so large nor so good a house as the Cradock house which I have described. In this country people had to satisfy themselves with even simpler accommodation. But wood was cheap; it took but little more pains to make a sub-sill forty feet long than to make one twenty feet long; and the houses grew larger and larger after the first settlement was made.

In four successive papers in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, I will try to describe the domestic and social life of the colonists, as long as in any sense they were colonists. That is to say, I will give one paper to the first generation, one to the frontier and military life, one to manufacture and commerce as the eighteenth century came in. And in the last paper I will try to throw some light on the social conditions in the generation before the Revolution.



The Cradock House, Medford, Mass.
Built in 1634.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, THE FIRST PRESIDENT.

BY M. M. BALDWIN, A. M., LL. B.

He was, indeed, in every sense of the word, a wise, a good, and a great man.—*Thomas Jefferson.*

WE may regard the remarkable career of Washington as separable into three periods: 1. the preparatory; 2. the military; and 3. the statesman and presidential period. The first and second of these will be very briefly treated.

He was born February 22, 1732, at Bridge's Creek, Virginia. His family was descended from English ancestors, who trace their genealogy up to the century succeeding the Conquest. He was quite wealthy in his own right, and increased his estate largely by his marriage. His instruction was mainly domestic and by private tutors.

His disposition for a military life disclosed itself early; and, when he was about fifteen years of age, his elder brother Lawrence secured for him a midshipman's warrant. But at the urgent solicitation of his mother the warrant was given up. His father had died when he was eleven years of age. He became a land surveyor at eighteen, and was employed by Lord Fairfax to survey his extensive lands in Virginia.

In 1751 his military bent induced him to accept the station of one of the adjutant-generals of that colony, with the rank of major. He was soon

sent by Gov. Dinwiddie on a perilous mission, in consequence of the French troops having taken possession of a tract of country claimed by Virginia, and commenced the erection of a line of military posts to be extended from the lakes to the Ohio River.

In the spring of 1755 he was invited by Gen. Braddock to enter his family as a volunteer aid-de-camp,* in his expedition to the Ohio. In a battle with the French and Indians, he had two horses killed under him, and four balls passed through his coat; he escaped unhurt, while every other officer on horseback was either killed or wounded. His reputation was now established. He was designated, soon after, as the commander-in-chief of all the forces raised or to be raised in the colony. During the years 1755-1758, he was engaged in protecting the

frontier—a duty from which he was relieved by the capture of Fort Duquesne. He then

retired from the service with the rank of colonel, and was elected burgess and senator of the colony. He married Mrs. Martha Custis, January 6, 1759.

For the next sixteen years Washington passed his time in the enjoyment of domestic life and in the

*[English pronunciation *aid-de-kamp*; French, *aid-de-kong*.] A term borrowed from the French, *aide*, assistant, *de*, of, or in, and *camp*, same as English word. "An officer selected by a general to carry orders, also to represent him in correspondence and in directing movements."



Houdon's Bust of Washington.



Edmund Randolph.



Thomas Jefferson.

cultivation of his beautiful family-seat at Mount Vernon. He was occasionally called upon to act as a magistrate for the county, or as a member of the legislature.

When the difficulties between England and her American colonies assumed a threatening

America assembled in general Congress at Philadelphia."

The next year Washington was elected by Congress commander-in-chief of the forces raised or to be raised in *defense* of American liberties. We have Washington's words :

"I believe I can declare it as a fact that it is not the wish or interest of any of the colonies, separately or collectively, to set up for independence ; but this you may at the same time rely upon, that none of them will ever submit to the loss of their valuable rights and privileges, which are essential to the happiness of every free state, and without which life, liberty, and property are rendered totally insecure. . . . I am well satisfied that no such thing as independence is desired by any thinking man in all North America." This was in 1774.

Washington took no step toward securing the appointment as commander-in-chief. John Adams rose in his place and said : "I have but



Washington entering New York

aspect in 1774, he was sent to the Continental Congress as one of the delegates from Virginia. On his return home, Patrick Henry was asked whom he considered the greatest man in Congress. He replied, "If you speak of eloquence, Mr. Rutledge of South Carolina is by far the greatest orator ; but if you speak of *solid information*, Col. Washington is unquestionably the greatest man on that floor."

The papers issued by that first Congress have been pronounced masterpieces of practical talent and political wisdom. Lord Chatham, when speaking on the subject in the House of Lords, could not restrain his enthusiasm. "When your lordships," said he, "look at the papers transmitted to us from America ; when you consider their decency, firmness, and wisdom, you cannot but respect their cause, and wish to make it your own. For myself, I must declare and avow that, in the master states of the world, I know not the people or senate, who, in such a complication of difficult circumstances, can stand in preference to the delegates of



Washington delivering his Inaugural Address.

one gentleman in my mind for that important command, and that is a gentleman from Virginia who is among us and very well known to all of us ; a gentleman whose skill and experience as an officer, whose independent fortune, great talents, and excellent character would command the approbation of all America and unite the cordial

exertions of all the colonies better than any other person in the Union."

The election was by ballot, and was unanimous in his favor. Having been informed of the result, rising in his place next day, he briefly expressed his grateful thanks for the honor conferred on him, and his sincere devotion to the cause. "But," added he, "lest some unlucky event should happen unfavorable to my reputation, I beg it may be remembered by every gentleman in the room that I this day declare, with the utmost sincerity, I do not think myself equal to the command I am honored with. As to pay, I will keep an account of my expenses. These, I have no doubt, Congress will discharge. It is all I desire." They had already fixed the salary at \$500 per month.

But to detail all his operations in the years that followed until our Independence was acknowledged by Great Britain, would be to repeat the history of the Revolution, and would cover the second period named above. I therefore pass to the third period and ask the reader's attention to Washington as a statesman and president.

But as it has a bearing upon what follows, I revert for a moment to the commencement of the Revolution. Then Congress had no national treasury, nor navy, nor army. They had not by their own officers enlisted a single company, or commissioned a single officer, aside from Washington. It is true they had, by resolution recorded on their books, adopted the army at Boston. But this action did not make that army theirs. When Washington took command under the old elm tree at Cambridge, there were men there under arms, such arms as each for himself happened to have. Then Washington visited the different posts. "In riding throughout the camp," says the historian, "he observed that nine thousand of the troops belonged to Massachusetts; the rest were from other provinces. They were encamped in separate bodies, each with its own regulations and officers of its own appointment. Some had tents, others were in barracks, and others sheltered themselves as best they might." As Washington said, "many were sadly in want of clothing, and all were strongly imbued with the spirit of insubordination, which they mistook for independence."

All the commanders cheerfully accepted Washington as their commander-in-chief, and, of course, their troops henceforth be-

came the national army; from these heterogeneous elements it was Washington's problem how to train, drill, discipline, and produce an active, skillful, and efficient military force. On and on, for nearly eight long years, did he and the noble armies under him push forward, much of the time in want of military equipments, and even the necessities of life; over mountains and rivers, and through marshes and forests and valleys; in hunger and thirst and heat and cold; enduring all that the bravest ever encountered in war, until Liberty's glorious banner of the Stars and Stripes floated over every portion of our native land, and over every sea and ocean upon the whole globe.

The army for a long time had been poorly paid, and much was now due the soldiers. The discontent on this account gave Washington much uneasiness. An insurrection was greatly feared. But he added to his reputation by the manner in which he noticed and counteracted the famous Newburgh letters,* and suppressed the mutiny of the Philadelphia line. Then the army was disbanded and Washington returned to Mount Vernon.

Then did the people begin to examine the actual condition of the country. Independence had been achieved on the battlefield; the colonies were independent of the mother country, and nearly so of each other. A kind of confederation had been formed, it is true, which had served in time of war against the foe, and it had that in view mainly; but when peace came, it was found almost totally unfit as a guide to so many states in all their varied and complicated interests. Congress could not enforce a single one of its acts. The states had more power than Congress. Money must be raised to pay off the present indebtedness and to secure future blessings. We were now to take our place among the most renowned nations of the earth. A very large portion of the territory acknowledged to be ours, was to be prepared for settlement by an enterprising and intelligent people, and how was all this, and much more, to be effected?

All these things were talked over, and soon conventions in the several states were proposed to appoint delegates to meet at Phila-

*These were printed appeals circulated among the soldiers, proposing that they should not lay down their arms "until they had gained some security for their rights." Washington's vigorous speeches to the army destroyed all the influence which the letters otherwise might have exerted over them.



John Jay.

delphia in May, 1787, for revising the Articles of Confederation. But these were found so defective that the Convention proceeded to form a new Constitution. To this Convention Washington was chosen as a delegate, and when it met he was elected as its president. After a four months' session, a new Constitution was agreed upon to be submitted to the entire people of the Union. Two political parties were then formed—those who advocated the adoption of the Constitution with some few amendments, were called Federalists, and their opposers, Antifederalists. The Constitution was adopted and Washington was elected president *unanimously*.

In his inaugural address, Washington declined all pecuniary compensation for his presidential duties, as he had when elected commander-in-chief of the army. Thomas Jefferson was selected as secretary of state; Hamilton of the treasury, Knox of the war department, John Jay, chief justice, and Edmund Randolph, attorney general.

They were entering upon a new and untried system of government. Past history and past experience afforded no precedents. Washington said, "I walk, as it were, on untrodden ground." Jefferson, in speaking of Washington at this time, said, "His executive talents are superior to those, I believe, of any man in the world, and he, alone, by the authority of his great name and the confidence reposed in his perfect integrity, is fully qualified to put the new government so under way as to secure it against the efforts of opposition."

As associates and advisers, Washington gathered around him the greatest public men of that day, and some of them were worthy to be ranked with the greatest of any day.

At the end of his first term, Washington was re-elected, again unanimously. During



Henry Knox.

his eight years of service, laws were passed for paying off the national debt of \$80,000,000; a national bank was chartered for twenty years; domestic manufactures were encouraged, and a revenue secured by laying duties on imported goods; a census of the United States was taken in 1790, and showed the entire population to be a little short of 4,000,000; New York City then contained 33,000 and Philadelphia about 28,000; an Indian war was carried on; the seat of government was removed to Philadelphia; a whisky rebellion in Pennsylvania had been put down; coal was discovered on bleak Mauch Chunk in Pennsylvania; the cotton gin was invented by Eli Whitney, a graduate of Yale College; and three new states were added to the Union,—Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

On December 5, 1796, Washington met the two Houses for the last time. In his speech to them, he recommended an institution for the improvement of agriculture, a military academy, a national university, and a gradual increase of the navy.

About the same time, he gave to the press his "Farewell Address to the American People," one of the most celebrated national documents of modern times. The wise, prudent, and far-seeing counsels, and the kind, affectionate, and fraternal spirit breathing through the whole of it, were true emanations of his own noble Christian spirit.

A vexed question has been raised concerning the authorship of this address. At present, it appears that it was the joint production of Washington, Madison, and Hamilton. Washington drew up a rough draft of it about the close of his first term, and requested Madison to revise and change it where he thought best. He did so; but it was not used then. Afterward, near the close of his second term, Washington placed it in the hands of Hamilton, and asked him to redress it. Thus it received the mental strain of three of our greatest Americans, yet it breathes the



Alexander Hamilton.

spirit and embodies the system of policy in which Washington had acted throughout his administration.

To quite an extent the counsels and recommendations of this Farewell Address have been adopted by our national management; and fortunate would it have been for America if all had been adopted and followed; especially that concerning characterizing parties by geographical discriminations,—Northern, Southern, Eastern, Western. The failure to adopt this has cost this generation alone, thousands of most precious lives; and millions of hard-earned wealth, besides endangering all our most precious rights and liberties.

A few words respecting Washington's personal qualities. His honesty and truthfulness were never called in question by those who knew him thoroughly. A case in point: After laying down his military authority he passed through Philadelphia where he adjusted his accounts with the Comptroller of the Treasury, and no single item thereof for eight years' receipts and disbursements has ever been questioned, even in political campaigns. On the settlement, it was found that the nation owed him for money he had advanced from his private purse, the sum of 14,500 pounds sterling, or about \$72,500. No part of this was for pay for his own services; for he gave notice in advance, that for these he expected no pay. He did not accept office for the emoluments.

Washington's hospitality is seen from his directions to his overseer, written in 1775:

"Let the hospitality of the house, with respect to the poor, be kept up. Let no one go away hungry. If any of this kind of people be in want of corn, supply their necessities, provided it does not encourage them in idleness; and I have no objections to your giving my money in charity, to the amount of 40 or 50 pounds a year [\$200 to \$250], when you think it well bestowed. You are to consider that neither myself nor my wife is in the way to do these good offices. In all other respects, I recommend the greatest economy and frugality, as I suppose you know that I do not get a farthing for my services here, more than my expenses."

Mr. Peake, another overseer, says, "I had orders to fill a cornhouse every year, for the sole use of the poor in my neighborhood." Who else did the like?

That he was public-spirited, we see from his proposals for the formation of canals and for the improvement of the highways, better

to convey produce to market. Congress seeing the advantage of the enterprise, extended the navigation of James River, the noblest stream in Virginia. He also interested himself in draining the "Great Dismal Swamp" of Dred Scott fame, which lay in the vicinity of his estate. In 1784, he said, "I shall be mistaken if the people of our country do not build vessels for the navigation of the lakes." What wonderful foresight! The dawn of Robert Fulton's day!

He had great reverence for woman. With such examples as his mother Mary and his wife Martha, how could he help revering all womankind and trusting that great possibilities might be expected from them, if but given the same advantages for culture as the men? As he himself had founded an academy at Alexandria, for boys, he encouraged his wife in founding and supporting at the same place a seminary for girls.

He had all the qualities of a great military character. He was enterprising, quick in perceptions, and in judgment intuitively great. He had no cowardly fear. We might say of him as the Psalmist sang of the godly: "He was not afraid of the terror by night, nor of the arrow (Indian?) that flieth by day." Writing of the battle of Germantown, Gen. Sullivan said,

"With great concern, I saw him exposing himself to the hottest fire of the enemy in such a manner that regard for my country obliged me to ride and beg him to retire."

With what modesty and diffidence he expressed himself when he said,

"When I contemplate the interposition of Providence, as it was visibly manifested in guiding us through the Revolution, in preparing us for the reception of the general government, and in conciliating the good-will of the people of America toward one another after its adoption, I feel myself oppressed and almost overwhelmed with a sense of divine munificence. I feel that nothing is due to my personal agency in all those wonderful and complicated events, except what should be attributed to an honest zeal for the good of my country."

At the outset of his career, Washington refused, even when urged to do so, to solicit office. When appointed commander-in-chief he wrote to his wife:

"You may believe me when I assure you, in the most solemn manner, that, so far from seeking this appointment, I have used every endeavor in my power to avoid it, not only from

my unwillingness to part with you and the family, but from a consciousness of its being a trust too great for my capacity; and I should enjoy more real happiness in one month with you at home, than I have the most distant prospect of finding abroad, if my stay were to be seven times seven years. But as it has been a kind of destiny that has thrown me upon this service, I shall hope that my undertaking it is designed to answer some good purpose."

To his favorite brother, John Augustine, he writes:

"I am now to bid you adieu, and to every kind of domestic ease, for a while. I am embarked on a wide ocean, boundless in its prospect, and in which, perhaps, no safe harbor is to be found. I have been called upon by the unanimous voice of the colonies to take command of the Continental army; an honor I neither sought after, nor desired, as I am thoroughly convinced that it requires great abilities, and much more experience, than I am master of."

He was a consistent professor of religion.

He supported and attended the two churches nearest his home at Mount Vernon and was an officer in each. He and his family were regular church-goers. The sanctity and quiet of Sunday were strictly observed by Washington while president, in New York. He attended church in the morning and passed the afternoon in his closet. No visitors were admitted excepting perhaps an intimate friend in the evening, which was spent by him with his family.

By his orders, Thanksgiving Day (1775) was duly observed, and the officers and soldiers were required to attend divine service, armed and equipped and ready for immediate action.

In another order he says:

"Gaming of every kind is expressly forbidden, as being the foundation of evil, and the cause of many a brave and gallant officer's ruin."

His well known order against profanity shows how he endeavored to prevent that vice among the men of his army.

Many and pointed orders have been issued against that unmeaning and abominable custom of swearing. notwithstanding which, with much regret the General observes that it prevails if possible, more than ever. His feelings are continually wounded by the oaths and imprecations of the soldiers whenever he is in hearing of them. The name of that Being from whose bountiful goodness we are permitted to exist and enjoy the comforts of life, is incessantly profaned and profaned in a manner as wasteful as it is shocking. For the sake therefore of religion, decency, and order, the General hopes and trusts that officers of every rank will use their influence and authority to check a vice which is as unprofitable as it is wicked and shameful. If officers would make it an invariable rule to reprimand and, if that does not do, punish soldiers for offence of this kind, it could not fail of having the desired effect.

LAND TENURE IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY D. MCG. MEANS.

UNDER the law of civilized communities all land is really held by two titles. The supreme title is in the sovereign or state; the subordinate or derived title is in the subject or private owner. The source of almost all supreme titles is in the last resort simply force. A conquering race has seized upon the land and asserted and maintained its sovereignty over the inhabitants. In a few cases there were no inhabitants and then the title is said to rest in occupancy rather than in conquest. Both titles however are of equal validity under the law of nations.

In earlier times conquest extinguished the title not only of the conquered state but also of its subjects. They were slaughtered or enslaved and their lands distributed among the conquerors. Advancing civilization has caused such practices to be looked upon as barbarous, and now when one Christian state conquers another the titles of the subjects of the conquered state are undisturbed and only their allegiance is changed. What is true of conquest is, of course, still more true of annexation by treaty, and when England a year or two ago ceded Heligoland to Germany, private ownership remained entirely undisturbed.

But at the time of the discovery of the western continent the Christianity of the European states was of a rather exclusive character. The law of Christendom was not regarded as a universal code, and it might almost be said that the heathen had no rights that Christians were bound to respect. By the Bull* of 1454, Pope Nicholas V. gave to the crown of Portugal the Empire of Guinea, and the power to subdue all the barbarous nations therein, and forbade all other nations to interfere. With equal disregard of international law as well as of the spherical form of the earth, Pope Alexander VI. in 1493 granted to the crown of Spain all lands discovered or to be discovered south of the

Azores and west of a line drawn from pole to pole a hundred leagues west of those islands. This pope however reserved from the grant all lands previously acquired by any Christian nation. Henry VII. of England authorized John Cabot and his sons "to seek out and discover all islands, regions, and provinces whatsoever that may belong to heathens and infidels," and "to subdue, occupy, and possess these territories, as his vassals and lieutenants." A like patent* was issued by Queen Elizabeth to Sir Humphrey Gilbert.

These proceedings were to some extent justified by international law, so far as nomadic tribes were concerned, Vattel† laying it down that as such peoples usurped more of the surface of the earth than they required for the purposes of 'honest toil,' they could not complain if more industrious races demanded a share of the territory which they rather overran than inhabited. The conquests of Mexico and Peru, however, and the plunder of their comparatively civilized inhabitants, admit of no justification; and it cannot be denied that the European states in their quarrels with one another insisted upon exclusive rights in regions which they claimed to have discovered, but where they had expended far less 'honest toil' than the aborigines. These quarrels, however, were not settled like those of private persons in the courts of law, but were decided before the tribunal of arms in the great wars of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Although a grant or patent from the crown would thus give an absolute title to the soil of the North American colonies, the early settlers were unable to reconcile the expropriation of the Indians with their inbred notions of law and justice. The Dutch extinguished the Indian title to Manhattan Island for sixty guilders, and William Penn

* A document conferring some right or privilege. Latin, *patere*, to be open; the patent was so called because open to the inspection of all men.

† (1714-1767.) Swiss publicist. He represented Augustus of Saxony at Bern, and was privy councillor at Dresden. His pen was wielded in defence of the Leibnitz system and on other subjects, of which the best known is "Law of Nations."

* An edict of the pope sent to the churches in his jurisdiction, which contains some decree, order, or decision. Latin, *bulia*, a knob; later, a leaden seal, such as was affixed to an edict; hence the name was transferred to the edict.

recognized the proprietary rights of the inhabitants of the region covered by his patent. Cotton Mather speaks of the magnanimity of the New England settlers in purchasing many tracts of land from the natives, "notwithstanding the patent they had for the country." Roger Williams went so far as to maintain that an English patent could not impair the right of the Indians to the land of this country, a doctrine which was thought treasonable at first in Massachusetts, but which has come to be accepted by the highest courts as at least theoretically true. It is now held substantially that a royal patent, or one granted by the proper colonial representative of the crown, gave to the patentee the exclusive right of purchasing from the Indians the land covered by the patent, but did not extinguish the Indian title. The Indian nations were the proprietors of the lands which they occupied, but they had no power to alienate them except to the European power that had gained control.

In accordance with this theory it was soon decided by the colonial authorities that individual subjects should not be allowed to buy lands from the Indians without the consent of the government, and it is easy to understand what abuses would have arisen from permitting transactions of this kind. As to the power of the Indian chiefs to grant away the lands of their tribes, it was not thought to be a subject for too great curiosity, although frequently repudiated by the members of these tribes. The Revolution had little effect upon titles to land, whatever rights and powers belonged to the crown passing to the people of the United States. But owing to the dual nature of our government questions have arisen as to the respective powers of the general government and those of the states in dealing with Indian titles, and some of these questions, as notably that of the Cherokee nation in the state of Georgia, have been extremely serious. It is sufficient for our present purpose however to say that throughout that part of the country originally colonized by the English and Dutch, the source of all titles to lands held by individuals is to be sought for in the original royal patents or in the patents of the colonial governors, fortified by cessions from the supposed representatives of the Indian occupants.

In the vast areas that have been added to

the first possessions of the United States, titles are both less and more complicated than in the Atlantic region. Where the territory was occupied by Indian tribes and not granted by the patent of any foreign power to individuals, the general government has conducted the negotiations with the Indians which in early times were left to individuals, and having acquired their lands by treaty or conquest, has distributed them among its own citizens under various homestead acts and railroad grants. Such titles are for the most part extremely simple. But where, as in the southwest, much of the land had passed into the hands of individuals through Spanish or French or Mexican patents before the dominion of the United States attached it, the uncertainty of titles is sometimes extreme. It is impossible to go into the details of these complications, but they have given rise to prolonged and fierce litigation. A recent act of Congress establishes a special court for the settlement of grants and land titles of foreign origin, its field of action being principally in the southwestern territories, and very important results are looked for from its decisions. They can be rendered only after enormous labor, as many of the terms used in the early Spanish grants have become obsolete, and most of these grants in New Mexico fail to comply with the requirements of the Laws of the Indies as to registry and attestation. For more than a century under the Spanish rule, it is said, there was no notary public in that territory. The difficulty of making clear titles is regarded as the principal hindrance to the settlement of these regions.

It seems, therefore, that in some respects the tenure of land in the United States was not very different from the tenure in England. As William parceled out the territories owned by the Anglo-Saxon nobility, so his successors distributed the possessions of the Indian tribes. In the one case the king led his lords, in the other he sent them, but in both cases the lords held their lands by the grant of the king. And as the Normans did not supplant the inferior classes of the conquered, so the titles of the occupying Indians were in theory at least recognized. But between the eras of the two conquests great changes had taken place in the English law. The feudal period was over and the feudal tenures were greatly modified. Under Charles II. the military tenures had been abolished and all sorts of tenures had been turned into

free and common socage.* The colonial grants were on tenures of this kind, reserving a rent to the king, with provision for commuting the rent by a payment in gross. Yet these tenures were of feudal extraction and retained some of the leading features of feuds, which however were generally attacked and extinguished at the time of the Revolution. In some of the states this process was not thorough, and it is possible to discover even at the present day some of the lesser feudal incidents enjoying a green old age after a career full of vicissitudes.

The general equality of conditions in this country always rendered it difficult to enforce most of the feudal services, and even fealty, the most important of them all, which was the oath of fidelity to the lord, became practically as extinct as homage. At the time of the Revolution it was turned into the oath of allegiance which every citizen may be required to take to the government. It was also then enacted in New York and other states that all lands held under grant of the people of the state were allodial† and not feudal, and at a later date all lands were declared allodial. But an estate in fee simple had become relieved of all invidious incidents, and no legislative enactment could restore the primitive allods. The lien of the state for taxes is supreme over all titles that subjects can hold, and no private owner of land can resist the right of eminent domain. Our governments are not, like the feudal sovereigns, military in their chief ends, but their power over all the possessions of their subjects, although less arbitrary, is more complete than that of the mediæval rulers. The state governments and the general government are the ultimate lords of the lands in the country, and to them in proper cases it is forfeited for treason.

Although feudal tenures were generally abolished at the time of the Revolution, it was of course impossible to change the nature of the common law, in which feudal principles and feudal language were imbedded. In many of the states the use of the

word 'heirs' remained necessary if a grant were to convey anything more than a life estate, and in some states it is still indispensable. Entails* were for the most part abolished, but in a modified form in one or two states they still linger. Long before the Revolution, however, they had ceased to be of importance in English law, estates being generally settled by the ingenious system of trusts and executory devises which had been worked out in equity, and this system was at first not disturbed by our states. As it was possible under this system to render land inalienable during any number of lives in being and twenty-one years and some months longer, the spirit of the country demanded greater freedom for the land, and the example of New York has been generally followed. In that state some sixty years ago it was enacted that land should be inalienable only for two lives and a subsequent minority.

But in some states this innovation was not adopted and the English law as it was at the time of our separation seems to remain practically in force. What is even more remarkable, the sweeping changes made in England during the present century have not been followed here. It is perhaps impossible now in England to make a settlement of lands that shall render them inalienable in certain contingencies, whereas in this country such contingencies furnish no ground for alienation. It would probably not be far from the truth to say that in England land may be inalienable for a longer period, while in this country its inalienability is more absolute.

Yet the absence of great titled families in this country had a marked effect upon the tenure of land. There was an attempt made in New York to institute something like the English custom of great estates owned by great families but occupied and tilled by a multitude of tenants. There was nothing impracticable in this so far as the law was concerned, but the attempt broke down from the hostility of public opinion. There came a time when the tenants practically rebelled against their landlords and when the law was almost powerless before the spirit of resistance aroused in the people. The landlords found that the difficulty of securing their rights was so great that it was wiser to abandon them, and their tenants gradually became owners in fee. This rent-war is an interesting although ob-

* "A tenure of land in England by the performance of certain determinate service." Socage land was held by free tenure without military service. The Anglo-Saxon word *soc* meant the power of holding court or domain.

† Freehold estate; land which is the absolute property of the owner, said to be held in fee simple. "In the United States all lands are deemed allodial in the owner of the fee, but subject nevertheless, to the ultimate ownership or dominion of the state." The origin of the word is uncertain, probably from the Old German *al'od*, entire property.

* "Limitations of land to certain members of a particular family or line of descent."

scure episode in the history of New York, and explains the singular statute which provides that no lease of agricultural lands for more than twelve years shall be valid.

From the same cause the law of primogeniture soon disappeared from our jurisprudence, and distress for rent was eventually abolished. As to primogeniture, in several states for some time after their independence, the eldest son had a double portion, and there is even at the present day considerable discordancy among the states as to the rules governing the descent of land to heirs. But in the main the degree of relationship determines the amount of inheritance, although there is little uniformity in dealing with the rights of relatives of the half-blood. The tenure of land in the several states is regulated by their respective laws, and although lands may be owned and granted or devised by non-residents, their deeds and wills must conform to the laws of the state where the land affected is situated in order to be effective. When questions as to the title of land in one of the states come before the Supreme Court of the United States that tribunal decides in accordance with the local law.

As a rule, then, we may say the American citizen holds his land by an absolute tenure, free from all liability to be disturbed and with full power of disposition, subject only to the lien of taxes and right of eminent domain. As a matter of fact, of course, this land may be encumbered with mortgages, easements,*

* A right of accommodation in another's land, such as that of passage or free access of light and air, which does not involve the taking of anything from the land.

servitudes, and charges of various kind, all of which however, with few exceptions, are created by the acts of individuals and not by the policy of the law. Land may also generally be held by aliens, but their tenure is frequently of a precarious nature, and too complicated to be here considered.

It remains only to consider briefly what is after all the fundamental characteristic of our titles,—their publicity. The possession of title deeds is of the utmost importance in England, but it is in this country ordinarily not of the slightest consequence. The whole history of every title should be spread out upon the public record, so that any one may determine for himself the validity of the title which he proposes to acquire without the necessity of placing the slightest dependence upon the representations of the seller. It is a common practice for lawyers to certify that titles are good when they have never seen the land or the owner or a single original deed. The whole chain of title with every encumbrance or defect will appear under properly drawn official requisitions. The system is theoretically very nearly perfect, if the law of land is to remain as it is, although of course the title must draw after it an ever lengthening chain. The expense is needlessly great, owing to the desire of public officers to increase their fees by magnifying and multiplying difficulties; but it is much less than in England. The prediction may be ventured that our whole system of land tenure will be in comparatively unchanged existence long after that of England has been revolutionized.

THE HISTORY OF POLITICAL PARTIES IN AMERICA.

BY F. W. HEWES.

THE first act in the long series of causes which finally led to the formation of political* parties in the colonies† was

* The Greek word for city was *polis*, for citizen, *polites*; the derived adjective, meaning pertaining to the state or to the body of citizens, was *politikos*. Hence through the Latin where the form was changed to *politicus*, came the English word, political.

† The old Romans called a husbandman, *colonus*, deriving this noun from their verb *colere*, to till, to cultivate, to dwell. A company of people who left their own land to cultivate or inhabit a new province or country, but who remained subject to the parent state, they called a *colonia*, whence the English, colony.

the Navigation Act,* passed by Parliament† in 1651. Following this, for over a hundred years, the parent country laid restrictions on commerce and manufacture in the colonies,

* This act declared that "no goods should be carried to the colonies or brought from them except in English ships."

† The French verb *parler* means to speak; and from it came the noun *parlement*, which passed into the English tongue through the Italian, where the spelling was modified into its present form. It was originally applied to a meeting or assembly for conference; afterward it was given in France "to the principal judicial courts, and in England to the legislature of the kingdom."

and yet the colonists were undivided. During all this long period there was one party of remonstrance in America, and one party of oppression in England. The Stamp Act* of 1765 divided the party of remonstrance into a party of action and one of inaction. In the twenty-two years (1765-1787) following that date, the party of action under the several titles of Whigs,† strong Government men, and Federalists,‡ laid, in law and in blood, the foundations of the Government of the United States of America.

POLITICAL PERIODS.—The political history of the United States under the Constitution|| divides naturally into four nearly equal periods. The first period (1789-1816), twenty-seven years, covers the important work of determining the *Foreign Relations* of the young nation, terminating with the war of 1812-15. The second period (1816-1844), twenty-eight years, was occupied chiefly with questions of *Finance* and *Industry*. The third period (1844-1872) was introduced by the annexation of Texas, and was given chiefly to questions of *Slavery*, *Civil War*, and *Reconstruction*, and closed with the General Amnesty Bill of 1872. The fourth period begins with the introduction of the "White Man's Government" in the South, and has thus far struggled with the *Race Problem*, *Finance*, and *Industry*.

FIRST PERIOD, 1789-1816.

FOREIGN RELATIONS.

FEDERALISTS, 1787-1819.—Those Whigs who believed in a government having full power to execute its laws, were known first as strong Government men (1785-1787) and then as Federalists.

ANTIFEDERALISTS, 1787-1792.—Both before

* For this and other historical allusions see index to the text-book in the Required Course of Readings, "The Leading Facts of American History."

† "The word 'Whig' is a contraction of 'whiggamore,' which in the southwestern counties of Scotland denotes a drover. In 1648 a party of Covenanters from this region attacked Edinburgh. 'This,' says Burnet, 'was called the whiggamores' inroad; and ever after, all that opposed the court came in contempt to be called Whiggs; and from Scotland the word was brought into England.'" Two or three other derivations of this name are given but this seems to be the most probable. The name whiggamore was given to these Scotch drovers from the term whiggam employed by them in driving their horses.

‡ See note on page 191 of "The Leading Facts of American History."

|| Latin, *constituere*, from *con*, with, together, and *statuere*, to place, to establish. The act of constituting; the principles or fundamental laws which govern a state or any body of men.

and after the ratification* of the Constitution those opposed to it, known first as Particularists (1785-1787) and then as Antifederalists, stood for statesovereignty,† and insisted on limited powers for the general government. They made strong opposition to ratification in Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and nearly prevented the Pennsylvania legislature from calling a ratifying convention. Their wranglings in Virginia and New York delayed action until the nine charter members necessary to organize the government had ratified. In North Carolina and Rhode Island they blocked progress entirely until the new government showed them that they could not afford to stay out of the Union.

ELECTION OF 1789.—When the votes of the first electors under the Constitution were counted it was found that every elector had voted for Washington, and that he was therefore unanimously elected first President of the United States, and that John Adams was elected Vice President.

ADMINISTRATION
FEDERALIST
WASHINGTON
1789-1797

Washington organized his first cabinet‡ as follows: Thomas Jefferson, secretary of state;

Edmund Randolph, attorney general; Alexander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury; and John Knox, secretary of war. Both houses of the first Congress|| were largely Federalist. The opposition claimed that the Constitution should contain a Bill of Rights. They pointed to the benefits the colonists had received under the English Bill of Rights passed by Parliament

OPPOSITION
ANTIFEDERALIST

* Latin, *ratius* (English, rate), fixed by calculation, firm, and *facere*, to make. The act of giving validity or sanction to something done by another, or by others; confirmation.

† "The doctrine that the States were independent of one another and of the Federal Government." The power of the state was held to be a protection against too great a power in the central government.

‡ The word cabin has a Celtic source, and was probably borrowed directly from the Welsh *caban*, a cabin, or cottage. From this word came the Old French *cabanette*, a little cabin, whence the English word cabinet, which in time was applied to the council which met in a little cabin or retired room. "It was first applied in England to that portion of the privy council supposed to possess more particularly the confidence of the sovereign and to be consulted by him privately on important matters."

|| Remotely from the Latin words *con* and *gradi*, meaning together, and to step, to walk. A meeting together, of individuals; a formal association of persons for the consideration of some special subject; specifically, the national legislature of the United States.

in 1689. They feared that the National Government might sometime deny to citizens the freedom of religious opinion, of speech, of press; the privilege of petition, of keeping an armed state militia; and other social and legal rights, unless the fundamental law of the nation expressly secured them in these rights. Congress very early in its work passed twelve Constitutional Amendments embodying such rights. Ten of the twelve were ratified and became a part of the Constitution.

Both the friends and enemies of the Constitution realized that aside from defining clearly the duties of Congress and the President it was a mere framework. Its details were all to be supplied by legislation. These details might leave it still only a loose bond of union or make it strong and durable. Congress met the task by prompt and masterly organization of the Departments of Justice, of State, of the Treasury, of War, and of the Post Office. Under direction of Hamilton a protective tariff* was established which gave industry a feeling of security it had never known when state sovereignty imposed differing duties in adjoining states. Laws were made regulating commerce, the territories, the militia, and intercourse with the Indians. A national bank was chartered and the national debt funded, including a limited part of the state debts.

The government thus organized and set in motion was broad and strong, but it was not accomplished without a struggle. The assumption of state debts and the establishment of a United States Bank called out extreme opposition. Two distinct schools of politics appeared. Jefferson with his associates held that too many and too large powers were being assumed by the government, that to charter a bank was going too far. They held that the individual rights of states must be maintained at the highest possible point. Hamilton and his associates taught that the individual rights of states should always give way whenever the general welfare of the country required it. While the Hamilton school of liberal construction has been the general characteristic of the actual work of the dominant parties, the Jefferson school of strict construction has usually characterized the opposition, and prevented extreme centralization. The two schools

thus acting as checks on ultra legislation have made the government strong, and the nation powerful.

The force of the government reached quickly beyond its own borders. North Carolina and Rhode Island still standing alone, found the tariff act a reminder that they were foreign states, and their industries lacking the advantage it gave to the states within the Union. North Carolina came in soon. Congress called on Rhode Island for its share of the Continental debt, but before the President signed the bill, "Little Rhody" joined the Union.

In Washington's second term, the suppression of the Whisky Insurrection (resistance of the tax on distilled spirits) in Pennsylvania still further proved the power of the government to execute its laws. It was the lack of this power that made the colonial congress a failure, and hence the Confederation of States a failure.

The neutrality proclamation as to France and England (1794) and Jay's Treaty (1795), which bound the United States not to interfere in behalf of France for ten years, increased the opposition to Congress and to Washington, and the disruption of the Cabinet (1795) was followed (1796) by the real organization of the Democratic-Republican* party with Jefferson as its leader.

DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICANS, 1792-1827.—This party included the Antifederalists and claimed to stand for the republican form of government under which the colonies had existed for a century and a half. It feared that the government, assuming such broad powers, would at last become another form of monarchy.† It also sympathized warmly with the organizers (Republicans) of the French Republic. For these reasons it claimed the name Republicans, and in large part bore it for several years. At the same time political clubs of Democrats were formed in America in imitation of the Jacobin (Democrat) clubs‡ in France. They were the ultra, loud-mouthed element of opposition,

* Greek, *demos*, the people, and *kratein*, to rule.—Latin, *res*, thing, affair; *publicus*, public; specifically applied to one favoring a republican form of government, in which all the people are interested in all affairs.

† Greek, *monos*, alone, and *arkein*, to rule.

‡ The most celebrated of the clubs of the first French revolution, so called from its place of meeting, the convent of Dominican friars of St. James, or Jacobins, in the Rue St. Honoré. It was the practice to debate every political question in this club before it was presented to the National Assembly.

* See note on page 240 of "The Leading Facts of American History."

representing extreme instability. Although disliking their ways the Republicans often welcomed their votes. The Federalists nicknamed the Republicans "Democrats." Modification at length united the two elements, and finally the party was known almost wholly as Democrats, but is known in modern history as Democratic-Republican.

ELECTION OF 1796.—Washington's election was unanimous both in 1789 and in 1792; that is, each elector voted for Washington, and at the same time wrote on his ballot the name of another man, thus indicating his first and second choice. That was the manner of voting for president until 1804. The electoral vote of 1796 was: John Adams, Federalist, 71; Thomas Pinckney, Federalist, 59; Thomas Jefferson, Democratic-Republican, 68; Aaron Burr, Democratic-Republican, 30. The candidate having the largest vote became president. The next largest, vice-president. It resulted therefore that a Federalist president and an opposition vice-president were elected.

ADMINISTRATION
FEDERALIST
ADAMS 1797-1801

France severed its relations with the United States and demanded the abrogation of Jay's

Treaty, and her navy preyed upon American commerce. Congress suspended intercourse with France (1798) and took steps to strengthen the army and navy. A few sea fights followed, and peace was restored the following year. During this time the foreign element of the opposition made scurrilous attacks on the President and Congress. Feeling these attacks sharply, and following recent legislation in England, the Administration passed alien laws which made it more difficult for foreigners to become citizens, and authorized their expulsion in certain cases. Sedition laws were also passed punishing with harsh penalties any one found guilty of hindering an officer of the United States in the discharge of his duties, or of publishing any false, scandalous, or malicious report against Congress or the President.

The opposition claimed that the Federalists meant to introduce political persecution and thereby secure continuous control of the government. They took the matter before the state legislatures, claiming that aliens were under state jurisdiction alone, and that Congress had no power to punish criminal libel; it, too, was under state jurisdiction. The

famous Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, prepared respectively by Madison and Jefferson, endorsed these views. No other states passed such resolutions, but the opposition everywhere made trials under these laws as public as possible, to influence public opinion against them. The disaffection finally reached the cabinet officers and Adams dismissed them (1800).

The administration of Adams closes the domination record of the Federalists, but it includes only a part of its work. This party now almost forgotten really formed the United States government. It changed a loose framework into a compact and effective structure. It built a broad foundation upon which all succeeding parties have stood to win their best victories, and each succeeding party has built the foundation broader and deeper.

It was not, however, more consistent than others. As an opposition party its record shows it as early as 1803 opposing the broad act of the Louisiana Purchase. In 1814 the faction known as the Hartford Convention showed a strong tinge of state sovereignty and in 1816, just before its death, it opposed a protective tariff.

ELECTION OF 1800.—Trials under the alien and sedition laws were disastrous for the administration. Some of the charges were petty and some ridiculous. The opposition used them for political purposes and gained constantly. The electoral vote stood: Jefferson, Democratic-Republican, 73; Burr, Democratic-Republican, 73; Adams, Federalist, 65; Pinckney, Federalist, 64. As no candidate had the largest number the election had to go to the House of Representatives, from the two having largest votes. All votes in the House must therefore be cast for the Democratic-Republican candidates. The first ballot was indecisive. The following ones were unchanged. Finally Jefferson agreed that if elected he would maintain the navy and the public credit, and that he would not remove Federalist officers for party causes, and he was elected on the thirty-sixth ballot after a continuous session of seven days. Burr became Vice-President.

ADMINISTRATION
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLICAN
JEFFERSON 1801-1809

Washington was inaugurated in New York, April 30, 1789. In 1790

the national capital was moved to Philadelphia and his second inauguration was there. Adams was also inaugurated there. The

capital was moved to Washington November 17, 1800. Jefferson was therefore the first President inaugurated at Washington.

As the opposition, in Adams' administration, the Democratic-Republicans had opposed naval construction, and in spite of Jefferson's pledge one of the first acts of the new administration was to sell the timber in the dock-yards and stop naval ship-building. The mistake was soon apparent, for Tripoli's declaration of war (1801) meant a navy or submission, and it took four years to subdue the Barbary States. With a good navy it could have been done in a few months.

In 1802 they concluded that the general government had greater control of aliens than when the alien and sedition laws were passed by the Federalists, and so they established a uniform system of naturalization.

In 1803 Napoleon offered to sell Louisiana to the United States. The price was small, and the future advantage great. Jefferson was eager to accept the offer, but the Constitution gave no power to buy and hold territory as the Federalists pointed out. Strict construction was waived however, and the purchase made, and the next year (1804) the Lewis and Clarke expedition was sent to explore the Oregon Country.

In 1806 the states were prohibited from importing certain English products, and an internal improvement bill passed. In 1807 the slave trade was prohibited after January 1, 1808, and an embargo laid prohibiting the export of state products.

The several acts controlling state interests for the general good, mark this administration as one of liberal construction. Except as to the Barbary States, our foreign relations were not improved. English and French depredations on the ocean increased.

ELECTION OF 1804.—Jefferson's first term gave him popularity, and the Federalists in the rôle of strict constructionists, lost ground rapidly. The electoral vote stood, Jefferson, 162, while Charles C. Pinckney, Federalist, had only 14.

ELECTION OF 1808.—Jefferson's second term left our foreign relations in a critical condition. Its effect bore most heavily on New England. This increased the Federalist vote there, but not enough for victory. The Clinton faction, "Clintonians," of the Democratic-Republicans in New York State weak-

ened the party, but not enough for defeat. James Madison of Virginia, the Democratic-Republican candidate, received 122 votes; Charles C. Pinckney, Federalist, 47; and George Clinton, 6.

ADMINISTRATION
DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN
MADISON 1809-1817

The embargo expired March 4, 1809, but the non-intercourse act which took its place forbade commerce with France and England, and was therefore nearly as great a restriction as the embargo. Consequently New England was in a ferment and seemed almost on the point of resisting the non-intercourse act by force. In 1810 the non-intercourse law was repealed as to France. The strained relations with England became more aggravated. The opposition to the administration increased. Clay, Calhoun, Crawford, and other new leaders appeared in Congress, and urged war with England. The President reluctantly consented, but that it was not a popular act is indicated by the election * following the declaration.

OPPOSITION
FEDERALIST

The Federalists of New England were bitter opponents of the war. Massachusetts and Connecticut denied the power of the general government to call out their militia, and in 1814 the Hartford Convention passed resolutions bordering so closely on secession as to suggest treason and cause the dominant party to take the same high national ground that the Federalists held when in power.

In 1811 the Democratic-Republicans opposed a United States Bank, but in 1816 they granted a charter to run twenty years. They also passed a bill for internal improvements.

The English blockade of all American ports during the war compelled Americans to buy American products or none. This was complete protection to American manufacturers and they increased rapidly for they had the whole home market to supply. The 80,000 spindles of 1811 had increased to 500,000 in 1815. The consumption of cotton increased from 500 bales in 1800 to 90,000 in 1815, and gave cotton growers better prices than they had ever known. Peace brought a flood of English products and drove American producers out of business or reduced them to desperate straits. A strong plea for a continuation

* Election of 1812.—The war was the only issue of any importance. The Clintonians united with the Federalists but still the gain was not enough for victory. Madison, receiving 128 votes was re-elected, while the Federalist candidate, De Witt Clinton, received but 39.—F. W. H.

of a home market for cotton came from the South. They clamored for a high tariff which would enable home manufacturers to resume business. Added to this was the weaker plea of the manufacturers themselves. Led by Calhoun, the first distinctively, although

moderate, protective tariff act was passed.

The war of 1812-15 settled all doubt as to our foreign relations, taught the world to respect the United States of America, on sea and land, and thereby closed the first period of national political history.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[October 4.]

Thy word is a lamp unto my feet and a light unto my path.—Ps. 119:105.

WHEREVER the Bible goes it dissipates darkness. Its elevating influence is unquestioned. Let a traveler in a wild, forsaken country put up for the night in an out-of-the-way, suspicious-looking house, and he might feel uneasy about his life and money. But let the good old Book be taken down, and let the head of the family reverently read therefrom in evening worship, and he would fear no longer; he would go to his rest with a feeling of perfect safety. An anecdote is related of some sceptical sailors, of their being wrecked on an isle of the sea, and of how they were afraid of being eaten by the cannibals till some of them, creeping cautiously from the shore to the top of a hill, saw in the valley below the spire of a Christian church, whereupon they leaped to their feet and called to their fellows that it was all right. Why that sudden sense of security? Because even those infidels knew that where the Bible and the church were, manners would be humanized. These are practical tests to show the real divineness of the Scriptures. Now let us note the elevating influences of the Bible along certain great lines.

1. Not to discuss the gradual undermining of slavery since the introduction of New Testament ideas of brotherhood, till, instead of two bondmen to one freeman throughout the Roman empire at the advent of Christ, human bondage is now practically extinct throughout Christendom,—with this barest allusion, passing over a recognized reformation that has been wrought by scriptural teaching along the line of individual liberty, mark the change that has taken place with reference to childhood. Every reader of classical literature is acquainted with the an-

cient practice of exposing infants. Paris, who abducted the beautiful Helen and thus brought on the Trojan war, was in infancy abandoned on Mount Ida. Romulus and Remus, the founders of the Eternal City, were, according to the traditional story, thrown into the Tiber. Plato, in stating his doctrine of the community of families, says: "Their children are also common, and no parent is to know his child nor any child his parent." And what was to be the disposition of the little ones in this ideal republic? Why, this: "The proper officers will take the offspring of the good parents to the pen or fold, and there they will deposit them with certain nurses who dwell in a separate quarter; but the offspring of the inferior, or of the better when they chance to be deformed, they will conceal in some mysterious unknown place. Decency will be respected."

But most to be pitied were the poor waifs who were cast out to be the victims of the weather or the wild beast, or to be reared for slavery, and often the brothel, by any who might choose to bring them to years of maturity. Aristotle advocated the inhuman custom of exposure. "Let it be the law," he said, "that nothing imperfect or maimed shall be brought up." Plutarch mentions "a sort of chasm" into which helpless infants were cast.

When the great Roman general Germanicus died, the event was commemorated by imposing civic and religious rites, and among the honors to the renowned dead were, says Suetonius the Latin historian, "new-born infants exposed." How different from the part taken by the children in connection with the death of General Grant, upon whose coffin was affectionately laid by them a wreath of oak-leaves which they had gathered out of the woods, and which by direction of the family was proudly carried in the great fu-

neral procession in New York, in one of the grandest pageants the world has ever witnessed!

What a transformation Christianity has wrought in the estimation placed upon childhood! Ever since the Babe of Bethlehem was cradled in a manger, and ever since as a man he said, "of such is the kingdom," little children have been more honored and more tenderly loved and nurtured. The parental relation has been dearer; motherhood has meant a great deal more. Unlike Plato's republic, which was inimical to childhood, unlike the pagan world generally with its exposure of infants, the millennium of Scripture is when "a little child shall lead them," while of the New Jerusalem the prophet says, "And the streets of the city shall be full of boys and girls playing in the streets thereof." Such instructions, coming with the authority of inspiration, have revolutionized public sentiment relative to infancy and childhood.

[October 11.]

The Bible has also elevated woman. Grecian and Roman womanhood is not to be admired. To be sure, there were some pure and beautiful characters. Greece boasted a Penelope, who accepted the proposal of marriage from Ulysses by covering her face with a veil to hide her blushes, and who rejected all suitors during the twenty years' absence of her husband at the Trojan war, remaining faithful in the hope of his return, in which she was not disappointed. Rome, too, had a Cornelia, who in her early widowhood refused many advantageous offers (one from a king) that she might devote herself entirely to her children; and when a caller desired to see her jewelry, in her two boys, invited in for the purpose, she showed "her jewels." But in these are solitary examples. The prevailing type of womanhood was that of worldliness and wickedness, with no high aim in life. Dress and dinner party, theater and circus, absorbed the feminine attention.

A wife of Caligula, the emperor, on one wedding occasion wore a set of emeralds worth two millions of dollars. One of the wives of Nero, says Pliny, "was accustomed to have her daintier mules shod with gold." In the train of such unnatural extravagance followed immoralities and infidelities which finally broke up the family and destroyed the state.

The biblical idea of wedlock, the divine order of things, is indicated by the one woman and the one man placed in Eden. God evidently intended marriage to be monogamous. Polygamy sprang up and was practiced even by Old Testament saints, but this was a departure from the original intent, and was expressly attributed to the hardness of people's hearts by Christ, who restored the marriage relation to its primeval condition, making again the twain one.

Turn now to Greece, and what was the ideal relation between man and woman? Let Plato, the greatest of its moral philosophers, answer. In the portrayal of his model republic, in the description of his Utopia, he proposes a community of wives. With such teaching from the highest sources, it is not strange that the prominent women of Greece, the companions of statesmen and philosophers, were the Aspasia and Phrynes, persons who would not be tolerated in decent society at present. Such at that time had their witty sayings collected, and statues erected to their memory by an admiring public. The wife, on the contrary, sank into obscurity. She was relegated to practical slavery. She was made to feel her inferiority. "Is there a human being," asks Socrates, "with whom you talk less than with your wife?"

And he used to go and talk with one of the women of the town. Perhaps Xanthippe was not altogether to blame for her exhibitions of temper.

In Rome it was no better. There had once been domestic excellence. Indeed, the claim was that there were no divorces for the first five hundred years of Roman history. But in the first century of our era such a state of innocence was only a dim and distant memory.

Cicero divorced his wife with whom he had lived thirty years, and married a young woman of wealth, whom in turn he discarded. Martial, who was born a few years after the Savior's death, mentions in one of his epigrams a woman who married her tenth husband within a month. Seneca, contemporary with Paul, makes the astounding declaration that there are "distinguished women of noble families" who "reckon their years not by the number of consuls, but by the number of husbands." Of course the wife sank under such circumstances. She became unworthy of notice. The lordly Roman, no

more than the Grecian, would have approved of the sentiment of Scripture :

" Her husband also, and he praiseth her, saying, Many daughters have done virtuously, But thou excellest them all."

Christianity wrought a great transformation. It elevated women to companionship. Our Lord did not disdain their ministrations. He honored them by appearing to them first after the resurrection. Paul rejoiced to find in them his first converts, and taught that there was in Christianity neither male nor female. They felt a new dignity in being thus recognized, and they rose under the encouragement step by step, until Libanius, the cultured friend of the apostate Julian, once exclaimed, "What women there are among the Christians!" Such was the judgment of even a pagan as to the elevating influence of Bible teaching upon womanhood.

[October 18.]

Consider next how the nations have been lifted by the religion of the Bible from barbarism. Wherever the Scriptures are read, and only there, do we see a higher order of civilization. Take European countries, and we find enlightenment graded according to the knowledge that each has of God's word. Heathen nations begin to wake up intellectually and commercially as soon as they are given the Scriptures. The Sandwich Islands and Madagascar are striking examples of the elevating influence of the Bible. Nor will it do to attribute the changed condition of things to the general spirit of progress. Let a mining town in the very midst of civilization be for a succession of years without the preached word, and how soon the people degenerate, until there is a reign of terror, of gambling, of drunkenness, of lust, of anarchy! But let the gospel be introduced, and communities begin improving; and it is the same with nations.

Let us trace the development under biblical teaching of a single great nation, the English. When Cæsar landed in Great Britain, in 55 B. C., he found the inhabitants to be savages, with "clothing of skins." When the Roman general Suetonius, about 60 A. D. proposed to conquer Britain, he was surprised at the wild appearance of the natives lining the shores ready to fight. Women mingled with the soldiers, and swinging their flaming torches and tossing their disheveled hair, they ran backward and forward and shrieked like

incarnate fiends. The Britons were nothing less than savage tribes. Their religion was the veriest superstition. Sometimes the priests, the Druids, offered up human victims to the imaginary deities.

How could people be reclaimed from such degradation? Why, the religion of the Bible was introduced, and, says Hume himself, they made great "advances toward arts and civil manners."

But just as they began to emerge from their barbarism there came apparent disaster in the immigration of a new and less-civilized element into the country. In the fifth century hordes of barbarians from the German forests crossed the sea and established themselves in Britain. These Angles and Saxons divided the country up among themselves into seven separate kingdoms. Who were these Anglo-Saxons, from whom as well as from the Britons we are descended? They were heathen tribes which fought each other, much as our Indians have done. Fighting was their main occupation for several generations, but their contests were of so little account as hardly to deserve historical mention. Indeed, Milton, according to Hume, says "that the skirmishes of kites and crows as much merited a particular narrative as the confused transactions and battles of the Saxon Heptarchy;" and the historian Knight speaks of their fierce hostilities and treacherous alliances affecting us "little more than the wars and truces of the Choctaws and Cherokees."

Such were the Anglo-Saxons, who were below the Britons even in point of civilization. They nearly extirpated the Christian religion, thereby causing the country to revert, says Hume, to its "ancient barbarity." Macaulay refers to their coarseness in his allusion to their "huge piles of food and hogsheads of drink." They had but little more refinement than brutes. All that was fair about them was their physical features. They had long flaxen hair and blooming countenances, but mentally, socially, and morally they were very inferior, and the cultivated Roman looked upon them about as we look upon the Negroes of Central Africa. Indeed, these heathen ancestors of ours were bought and sold as slaves, as the Africans have been in later times.

That is the kind of ancestors we had, and if it had not been for the cause of Christian foreign missions we would be sitting in pagan darkness, for their religion was gross

beyond conception. They had numerous gods to whom they sacrificed not only animals but human beings. Their chief deity was the god of war, and hence the better fighters they were the more religious they were. Their idea of Paradise was a vast hall where they could recline on couches and drink ale from the skulls of their slain enemies.

[October 25.]

What lifted those warring tribes out of heathenism and developed and cemented them into a great people? The Bible. Into Britons and Anglo-Saxons life from above was breathed, and the mightiest, grandest people of all history sprang into being. Every new incursion of Danes or Normans was taken up under the power of the gospel and utilized as fresh blood to be sent coursing through the body politic. There have been revolutions now and then, but these have been only the eruptions which left the nation healthier and stronger. Territory has been added to territory, till English-speaking people to-day control a scope of country simply colossal in extent, the sun never setting on the worldwide dominion and England's drum-beat being literally heard around the globe. Art, science, civilization, and Christianity keep pace with the onward movement of this great political power. Isaiah grows eloquent over the little one becoming a thousand, and the small one a great nation, through the Lord's hastening, and he breaks out, "Who are these that fly as a cloud, and as the doves

to their windows? Surely the isles shall wait for Me, and the ships of Tarshish first." The prophet seems almost to have seen the white-sailed fleets of the British isles riding proudly every sea, speeding over vast expanses of water with the rapid flight of white doves before a storm, and with the velocity of the cloud borne swiftly along by cyclonic wind. Out of savage Britons and heathen Anglo-Saxons, out of piratical Danes and semi-civilized Normans, has been wrought by the religion of the Bible that which we do see. God's word has been the lamp and light by which this national progress has been made. To whatever it goes it has the same elevating influence, and even Darwin, after seeing the transformation wrought by the gospel on certain isles of the sea, became a regular contributor to the cause, and testified, "The lesson of the missionary is that of the enchanter's wand." Let, then, this magical Book be sent around the globe. Glad are we that it has been rendered into three hundred and sixty tongues and dialects by the British and American Bible societies, and let there be no halt in the good work until the "blest volume" has been carried in the vernacular to every kindred, every tribe, on this terrestrial ball. Each of us may well say with Sir Walter Scott in his Journal, published in 1890, "I would, if called upon, die a martyr for the Christian religion, so completely is (in my opinion) its divine origin proved by its beneficial effects on the state of society.—*From the Rev. Andrew W. Archibald's "The Bible Verified."*

PHYSICAL LIFE.

BY MILTON J. GREENMAN, PH.D.

Of the University of Pennsylvania.

I.

PHYSHIOLOGY is the science which treats of the vital phenomena occurring in organized bodies; in reality it is the Science of Life. Thus, for example, a living animal moves by means of its muscles, the organs of locomotion; it assimilates food for the system by means of a special apparatus adapted to the purpose; the vascular apparatus distributes the nutriment to the entire system, in order to replace the worn out tissue; the reproductive system plays the im-

portant part of perpetuating the species; while the nervous mechanism rules over all other systems, and brings into co-ordination the functions performed by the different systems. These are the functions which we designate the vital phenomena of the organism, and it is the object of physiology to establish these phenomena, to determine their regularity and causes, and to refer them to the general fundamental laws of natural science, viz., the laws of physics and chemistry.

The forces which act in dead or unorganized matter are precisely the same as those which act in living or organized bodies, and the so-called *vital force* which was once supposed to cause vital phenomena has no existence in the minds of modern observers. Not that the laws governing vital phenomena are at all clearly understood, but the advancement of modern science in every direction promises a far better, a more rational explanation of vital phenomena than is offered in the old theory of vital force.

There is without doubt a special exchange of matter and energy peculiar to living matter. It consists in the capacity of an organism to assimilate the matter of its surroundings and transform this matter or food into living matter, so as to form a part of its own constitution for a time, then to be given off or excreted. But it is safe to infer that even this peculiar change is explained by the fundamental laws of natural science and not by the existence of a special vital force.

Ordinarily we are disposed to recognize physiology in its more restricted meaning as the science which deals only with the vital phenomena occurring in the human body. This latter we term human physiology, while general physiology treats in general of all the vital phenomena occurring in both plants and animals. Special physiology deals with the functions of a particular organ of an organism. Physiology is also distinguished, according to the divisions of organisms, as animal physiology and plant physiology.

In order to consider the vital phenomena of organisms, we must first of all recognize the fundamental conditions which are necessary for the maintenance of life in an organism, and also the so-called vital properties of living matter.

We recognize five elements which are necessary to maintain life in a plant or in an animal. They are: food, moisture, heat (a certain amount), air, and a certain degree of atmospheric pressure. Common sense teaches us that no plant or animal can live any length of time without food; yet when we observe certain plants like the so-called Florida moss (which, by the way, is not a moss but an orchid), growing in masses, hanging from the limbs of trees in the forests and sometimes from wires in our green-houses, we wonder from what source its food is obtained. It is sometimes said to feed on

air. This statement is correct, for we find on investigation that the plant extracts from the atmosphere a gaseous compound of carbon and oxygen, known to chemists as CO_2 , or carbon di-oxide, the symbol indicating the relative proportion of the two elements, carbon and oxygen, existing in the compound. This compound is the food of a whole group of plants known as orchids; they absorb the CO_2 gas from the atmosphere, separate the carbon from the oxygen, and the carbon becomes an integral part of the plant, while the oxygen is liberated and thus increases the percentage of oxygen in the atmosphere. This will serve as an explanation to the theory that plants are beneficial to the air of our living rooms. All plants take CO_2 as food, but the orchids have little or no other food while other plants also take food from the earth.

Water is absolutely necessary to every living thing. Deprive an animal of water, and death will ensue more quickly than if deprived of food. The evaporation of water from the surface of both plants and animals is so great that if the water supply is cut off the organism soon withers and dries up; its fluids and tissues become dry and it can no longer survive.

Air is essential to all organisms. Every plant and every animal breathes air or oxygen. In the case of fishes and other aquatic organisms, they breathe water which is charged with oxygen. Place an organism in a receiver containing no air and it suffocates in a very short time. Oxygen must be supplied to all living organisms.

As to heat, a certain amount must be supplied, for no organism can live when the amount of heat present is so small that the fluids of the organism congeal in solid masses and thus stop the vital phenomena. There are seeming exceptions to this, however, as in the case of hibernating animals and plants which live through the winter in cold climates; but in these cases the vital phenomena are practically at a standstill and the lack of heat at this time does not affect them. It is when an organism is most active that the lack of sufficient heat or an excess of heat is most deleterious. An excess of heat tends to coagulate the fluids and tissues of an organism as boiling water coagulates the white of an egg.

Atmospheric pressure is rarely taken into consideration unless we observe it by prac-

tical experience. Ordinarily the pressure of the air upon the surface of the body is about fifteen pounds per square inch. I can think of no better experiment to show the effect of increased pressure on the surface of the body than to go down in a diving suit. If we undertake to dive under water to any great depth, we at once notice a very painful sensation, mostly about the head, as soon as we reach a depth of thirty feet. This is, of course, due to the increased pressure upon the surface of the body and is relieved as soon as we come up. If an inexperienced person attempts to go much deeper than thirty feet the chances are that he will come up suffering great pain and bleeding from the nose and ears. Now if we conceive of the atmospheric pressure being suddenly increased till the pressure on the body is as great as it is thirty or forty feet under water we readily see that serious consequences would follow. There are, however, many creatures which are accustomed to such great pressure, for if we dredge the sea bottom at the depth of a mile we will find many plants and animals living there. Thus we see different organisms require different degrees of pressure. The limits of normal pressure for an organism are not exceedingly narrow, but the variation in pressure for different organisms is exceedingly great.

The vital properties which we recognize in every living organism are: irritability, contractility, assimilation and metabolism,* respiration and reproduction. In other words, every living organism responds by means of some vital act, to stimulus applied to it; one of the most common responses to stimulus is contraction. If a decapitated frog's muscle be stimulated by the application of some irritating substance it will contract; if the eye is touched the stimulus is at once responded to by closing the lids; hence we say living matter is irritable, it responds to stimulus.

Contractility is likewise characteristic of living organisms. We recognize this property in the lowest forms of life. The amoeba moves by successive elongations and contractions of its one-celled body; and every cell in any living organism possesses or has

*[Metabolism.] From a Greek word meaning change. In biology it designates the sum of the chemical changes within the body, or within any single cell of the body, by which the protoplasm is either renewed or changed to perform special functions or else disorganized and prepared for excretion.

at some period of its existence possessed, this same property—contractility. Thus all the primitive cells of a developing organism are more or less contractile. Some cells assume this property as their special characteristic, and they become differentiated to perform one kind of work in the organism; we have as a result of this specialization, the muscle cell whose only function is to contract.

As to assimilation and metabolism, all organisms prepare food by means of their digestive apparatus and convert this prepared food into an integral part of their own constitution. The food of plants and animals differs, and upon this difference the main distinction between plants and animals is based. Plants utilize as food the stable compounds, such as the inorganic salts, the CO_2 of the air, and convert these into complex compounds; thus potential solar energy is converted into the chemical potential energy of plant tissue. Animals on the other hand break up the complex compounds formed by plant life and convert the potential energy of plant tissue into kinetic energy, or the energy of motion. This change is continuous; plants changing stable inorganic compounds into unstable organic compounds, and at the same time converting the energy derived from the sun, for no green plant can grow in the dark, into the chemical potential energy of plant tissue, which in turn is converted by animals into kinetic energy.

Animals die, and their bodies when left to nature's method of destruction, undergo decomposition and the elements which were once united in the unstable compounds of first the plant, then of the animal, are again resolved into their ultimate elements or into much more stable compounds.

The decomposition of an organism when left to natural destruction is due to fungi commonly known as microbes, or bacteria. These micro-organisms play the important part of pulling to pieces dead organisms, resolving the tissues of the organism into their ultimate elements so that they may be again utilized by developing plants. Thus we observe a continuous cycle of changes. The simple elements of nature are converted, under the influence of the sun, into the complex compounds of plant tissue; and from the fact that these compounds are formed by living organisms they are called organic compounds; these organic compounds when utilized by animals for food, are transformed

into animal tissue, which, when dead, is disorganized by bacteria and we have the original elements, with which the plant first started, set free. Were it not for this cycle of changes we might conceive of a gradual accumulation of dead organic bodies till all the natural elements had been converted into organic tissue.

I have dwelt at length upon assimilation and metabolism and the cycle of changes which these processes bring about, for they are the phenomena concerned in the immediate transfer of elements from the inorganic to the organic. But respiration is not less important, for by means of the respiratory function all plants and animals are supplied with oxygen, which is chemically the important agent in all these transformations of matter. All plants and all animals respire and the process is exactly the same in both kinds of organisms.

Plants breathe through the leaves, animals breathe by lungs, by gills, or by gills and lungs combined as in some fishes (the *Dipnoi*); others breathe by fine tubes running through the body. The microscopic plants and animals breathe directly through the body wall.

The last and most important vital property which we recognize in living organisms is reproduction. A species may live forever, the individual is of short duration. No life is generated spontaneously as was formerly supposed; all living organisms come from pre-existing living organisms—and from the lowest to the highest forms in both kingdoms of organisms the union of two sexes is necessary to reproduction.

Having discussed certain general principles bearing on the subject of physiology let us now consider the special physiology of blood, taking human blood as a type.

THE BLOOD.

The blood acts as a medium of exchange between the outer world and the tissues. It receives nutriment from the digestive tract, and oxygen from the air of the lungs, both of which it distributes to every living cell of the body. It also receives the waste products from these cells and conveys them to the proper organs to be eliminated.

The importance of the blood has been known from the earliest periods in the history of physiology, and it is now known to be the most highly organized fluid of the body.

We observe that freshly shed blood is red, an opaque red, the opacity being due to the fact that the blood is not homogeneous but composed of a fluid in which are suspended innumerable microscopic bodies. The red color varies from a bright scarlet to a dark bluish red. If blood be shed from an artery it will be bright red in color, if shed from a vein the color will be dark red. The variation in color depends upon the presence or absence of oxygen. The odor of blood is peculiar and varies very greatly in different animals; it is due to the presence of certain volatile fatty acids. The reaction is alkaline, due to the presence of sodium phosphate and sodium bicarbonate which also give to blood its saline taste. The specific gravity is about 1.055.

In a microscopic examination of blood we find it to be made up of a fluid portion known to physiologists as the blood plasma, or liquor sanguinis, and of a solid portion which consists of corpuscles. The solid elements in the blood were first discovered in 1673 by Leeuwenhoek.* Since that time the composition of the blood has been most carefully investigated and not less than three kinds of corpuscles are known to exist in it.

The corpuscles of human blood may be studied by placing a drop of freshly drawn blood on a glass slip and carefully covering with a thin cover-glass, such as is prepared for the purpose, and examining with a microscope magnifying three hundred and fifty or four hundred diameters. Under the microscope the blood loses its bright red and appears yellow, the corpuscles bearing nearly all the coloring material. The red corpuscles are biconcave circular discs, with rounded edges. They possess no nuclei in human blood, and measure about $\frac{1}{3200}$ of an inch in diameter and about one fourth or one fifth that measurement in thickness. The red corpuscles are by far the most numerous of all the corpuscles of the blood and they constitute about one half—a little less perhaps—of the mass of blood.

The red corpuscles give to blood its red color, although they do not appear red under the microscope; they are elastic, homogeneous and when shed tend to arrange them-

*[Luh'wen-hook.] Dutch naturalist (1632-1723). A merchant who studied science in his spare moments, and became noted for making the best microscopes in Europe. He was one of the first to use the microscope in anatomical physiological investigations.

selves in rows like *rouleaux** of coin. This arrangement is due to the fact that shed corpuscles soon exude a sticky substance upon their surfaces which causes them to adhere in the manner mentioned.

The red corpuscles of man and all mammals except the camels are circular, and in this respect differ from those of all other animals. The red corpuscles of the camel are oval like those of birds, reptiles, amphibians, and fishes. There is also a difference in the size of corpuscles from different animals; this difference in shape and in size gives to the study of red corpuscles more than ordinary anatomical interest, for not infrequently experts are called upon to determine whether certain blood stains are of human blood or of some lower animal, and they are also called upon at times to determine whether the blood stains were shed from a living body or from a body which had been some time dead. These facts are determined from a study of the corpuscles. Human red blood corpuscles are nearly the same size as those of the dog, hence the difficulty in distinguishing with absolute certainty, the human corpuscles from those of the dog. A chicken's blood is on the other hand easily distinguished from human blood by the shape of the corpuscles; the chicken's corpuscle being oval. It is a curious fact that the largest mammals like the whale and elephant, have the smallest corpuscles.

The color of blood corpuscles is due to a complex chemical compound known as hemoglobin.† It exists in the substance of the corpuscles, when it appears as a dark red crystal. Hemoglobin exists in the blood in two forms,—reduced hemoglobin and oxyhemoglobin. In venous blood we find reduced hemoglobin,—hemoglobin from which a large portion of oxygen has been extracted by the tissues through which the blood has been circulating. Oxyhemoglobin exists in arterial blood, and is overcharged with oxygen obtained from the lungs.

The readiness with which the red corpuscles absorb oxygen from the air of the lungs and the changes of color depending upon its supply or withdrawal, indicate that they have a special relation to the introduction of oxygen into the body and its distribution to the tissues.

*[Roo-lé.] A French word, which means little rolls. Specifically applied to "rolls of paper containing a specified number of coins of the same denomination."

†[Hem-o-glō-bin.] From the Greek *aima*, blood, and the Latin *globus*, a ball, and the suffix *in*.

In addition to the red corpuscles of blood we find numerous colorless globular bodies known as the white blood corpuscle or the leucocytes* of Robin.† They are granular in appearance and exhibit an amœboid movement; they are less numerous than the red blood corpuscle existing with the red blood corpuscle in the proportion of one to about four hundred.

These leucocytes are found throughout the fluids of the body, in the chyle, lymph, and blood; their function seems to be that of scavengers to destroy organisms and foreign bodies which get into the fluids of the body. To demonstrate this fact, Prof. Dolley, of the University of Pennsylvania, relates how he introduced the red corpuscles of his own blood into the circulation of a mollusc, and on examination of the mollusc's blood a few hours later he found that the leucocytes of the mollusc's blood had taken the red corpuscles of the human blood into their substance and were rapidly digesting them. These corpuscles are always numerous at points of irritation; their presence in large numbers at any point is indicative of the reparative process.

The third corpuscle of the blood is the blood plaque. They are of various shapes, circular, oval, or lenticular. They are supposed to be concerned in the formation of fibrin during the process of coagulation.

The fluid portion of blood, or blood plasma, is composed largely of water, with albuminous matters and various crystallizable substances of organic origin in solution. The salts of sodium, potassium, calcium, and magnesium are present in small quantities. Albumen is present in comparatively large quantities. Fibrinogen [fi-brīn'ō jěn] is the fibrin-forming element of the blood and exists in the blood plasma in very small quantities.

Blood coagulates almost immediately after being shed; were it not for this property we might bleed to death from the slightest injury. When blood is shed, the fibrinogen, combined, probably, with certain other elements of the blood, is transformed into fibrin and the fine threads of fibrin thus formed en-

*[Leu-ko-sites'.] From a Greek word meaning whiteness.

†Charles Philippe. French physiologist (1821-1885). He is considered the leader if not the founder, of the school of microscopic physiology, and was active in the promotion of anatomical, physiological, and pathological researches. He is also the author of numerous scientific works.

tangle the blood corpuscles and we soon have a solid clot floating in a clear, light colored liquid. The resulting liquid is known as blood serum; it is the blood plasma minus the fibrin.

The coagulation of blood is influenced by various physical conditions. Extreme cold prevents coagulation. A solution of sodium sulphate will prevent coagulation when mixed with blood. Heat accelerates coagulation; bleeding into a rough vessel will hasten the coagulation of the blood shed; and blood shed from a small artery coagulates more quickly than blood from a large one. Coagulation takes place very slowly in the blood vessels after death.

The corpuscular elements of blood may be separated from the blood plasma before coagulation takes place, by mixing the blood with a solution of sugar of one half per cent, and placing the mixture on a filter. The blood corpuscles will be retained on the filter while the transparent colorless blood plasma and sugar solution will pass through. The filtrate thus obtained will coagulate after a time like freshly drawn blood.

The blood system of mammals is the most complex of all. The blood of invertebrates differs from that of vertebrates in the absence of red corpuscles and the presence of a larger

proportion of white corpuscles. Even in the lowest vertebrates (*Amphioxus*) we find blood consisting of plasma and leucosites. Among the molluscs we have one form (*Arca pexata*) having red blood corpuscles.

The blood performs three important functions: first, it conveys nourishment to every living cell of the body; second, it conveys oxygen to all parts of the system; third, it removes the refuse from every part of the body, taking the waste products from every living cell and conveying them to the kidneys.

In 1616 Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood. The organs of circulation consist of a heart, which acts both as a suction pump and a force pump; afferent and efferent vessels; and the nutrient fluid or blood.

By means of the heart and vessels a continuous flow of blood through the system is maintained, and the materials absorbed from the alimentary canal are conveyed to distant parts for their nourishment and growth and the oxygen absorbed through the lungs is distributed to all parts of the body in like manner. By means of the blood the products of excretion find their way to the outlets of the system, and the losses by exhalation in one organ are made good by absorption in another.

NATIONAL AGENCIES FOR SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

BY MAJOR J. W. POWELL, PH. D., LL. D.

Director of the United States Geological Survey.

"THE best blood of England flows in my veins; on my father's side I am a Northumberland, on my mother's I am related to kings; but this avails me not. My name shall live in the memory of man when the titles of the Northumberlands and the Percys are extinct and forgotten."

So said James Smithson a century ago. The ennobled Percys had come into England with the Conqueror; they had crowned and disrowned kings; they had plucked Magna Charta* from John at Runnymede; eight generations of earls had successively given their lives in their country's wars and their party's quarrels; but James Smithson, the chemist, felt that the world would soon demand new credentials, and would accord its

honor to those only who should do something to promote the welfare of man.

Upon the coffin plate of his father this epitaph was inscribed:

"The most high, puissant, and most noble Prince Hugh Percy, Duke and Earle of Northumberland Earl Percy Baron Warkworth and Lovaine and Bart Lord Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the Counties of Middlesex and Northumberland, of the City and Liberty of Westminster and of the Town and County of the Town of Newcastle upon Tyne, Vice-Admiral of the County of Northumberland and of all America, one of the Lords of His Majesty's most Honorable Privy Council, and Knight of the most noble Order of the Garter."

This Earl of Percy and Northumberland had proved himself a remarkable man. In youth he had been plain Sir Hugh Smithson,

*[Mag'na kar'ta.] The great charter of liberties obtained by the English barons from King John, A. D. 1215.

but he possessed high executive qualities and towering ambition, and when the great Percy family, whose members had often been beset by assassins and decapitated by royal executioners, had nearly run out, he married the only survivor, a daughter, and in forty years of vigorous management he succeeded in completely rehabilitating the illustrious name and more than restoring its fortune, so that when he died he received an income of \$250,000 a year. A liberal allowance always went to his left-handed bachelor son, the frugal scholar and investigator, James Smithson, and this fragment became the basis of that large sum which the son laid aside to found a scientific institution in the capital of the new world.

Why he chose this method of expending his bounty does not clearly appear. He had never visited America. His two half-brothers were officers of the British army, and one of them, Lord Percy, commanded a brigade at Lexington and Bunker Hill, and wrote home the fiction that the "rebels" scalped the prisoners whom they captured. His father, the "most high puissant Duke," had steadfastly supported King George with money, influence, voice, and vote in his warfare upon the American colonies. This same father is recorded as "Vice-Admiral of all America," six years after our independence had been acknowledged, and it is possible that the son conceived the idea of doing something to diffuse knowledge among a people over whom his parent claimed such comprehensive naval authority.

Moreover, Smithson was all his life a traveler. In France, in the revolution which brought Napoleon to the notice of mankind, he became a friend and champion of popular government. In the spring of 1792, which in the language of the tri-color brotherhood he defined as "May 9th, Year 4," he wrote a letter to a friend in England, saying,

"Things are going on. *Ça ira*^{*} is growing the song of England, of Europe, as well as of France. Men of every rank are joining in the chorus. Stupidity and guilt have had a long reign, and it begins, indeed, to be time for justice and common sense to have their turn. Mr. Louis Bourbon is still at Paris, and the office of

king is not yet abolished, but they daily feel the inutility, or rather great inconvenience, of continuing it, and its duration will probably not be long. May other nations, at the time of their reforms, be wise enough to cast off, at first, the contemptible incumbrance. . . . I consider a nation with a king, as a man who takes a lion as a guard-dog,—if he knocks out his teeth he renders him useless, while if he leaves the lion his teeth the lion eats him.

"I remain, dear sir, yours, very sincerely,
"JAMES L. MACIE."

Macie is the name he had inherited from his mother; he had not yet assumed his father's name, Smithson. This letter was prophetic; in a fortnight the populace rushed into the royal palace and hustled the king out upon the balcony with the red cap upon his head, and in seven months the royal palterer was beheaded.

It is true that Smithson was unique among philanthropists in seeking posthumous fame and opportunity to do good in a land of which he knew little, but in the choice of the occupation of his life he was equally singular. Without family restraints or social ties, a wanderer through the countries of Europe, elegant in manners, with an attractive personality and a princely fortune, he deliberately selected scientific research for the employment of his leisure. An impressible youth with a never-failing purse, in an age of free living, who was yet so enlightened as to seek and find his chief pleasure in the enlargement of the realm of positive knowledge, would not be apt to be conventional in his philanthropies. So he wrote a will and bequeathed half a million dollars to establish the Smithsonian Institution.

Smithson must have possessed great philosophic intuition, for when he made his beneficent will the world was yet only on the threshold of scientific discovery and material progress. During the sixty-six years that have since elapsed the advance has been as great as during the whole of the seven previous centuries, or since the Norman Percy landed at Hastings.

Some remarkable things had been done, indeed, within Smithson's mature lifetime, most of them after he graduated at Oxford. James Watt had reconstructed the clumsy steam-engine of Papin and Newcomen and won the lasting gratitude of man; John Fitch had set his steam-yawl on Collect Pond, and Fulton had navigated the Hudson;

*[*Sa e-ra*.] A French revolutionary song, popular during the reign of terror. The words are translated, "It shall go on." They were the beginning of a line which read, "It [the Revolution] shall go on, [hang] the aristocrats to the lantern (lamp-post)."

Piazzi from his solitary perch on Sicily, had discovered a swarm of new worlds; Cartwright had given to Europe the power loom, and Hargreaves the spinning jenny; Arkwright, the barber, had won immortal honor from his ingenious cotton machinery; Strutt had set up the knitting frame, and Whitney had set up the cotton gin; William Herschel had discovered Uranus and revealed the rotation of Saturn's rings; Davy, from abstract science, had furnished to labor the safety lamp, and Volta the electric pile.

Machinery had not yet superseded muscle to any appreciable extent. The locomotive was not harnessed. Franklin's brilliant guess had not materialized in the telegraph. The sun had not reinforced the portrait painter. The telephone and phonograph were still far in the future. Even Smithsonian's own chosen chemistry was an empiric* science, and in its infancy. As he himself said in one of his papers:

"Chemistry is yet so new a science; what we know of it bears so small a proportion to what we are ignorant of; our knowledge in every department of it is so incomplete, consisting so entirely of isolated points, thinly scattered, like lurid specks on a vast field of darkness, that no researches can be undertaken without producing some facts leading to consequences which extend beyond the boundaries of their immediate objects."

Of Smithsonian's personality we know little. He died before Niepce's† remarkable experiments with nitrate of silver had matured, and his sensitive nature shrank from the portrait painter. A small miniature exists, painted in 1816, which represents him as a pale and fragile man, perhaps a consumptive, close shaven, with light, amiable eyes, large aquiline nose, refined and mobile mouth, and abundant yellow hair. In spite of his frail physique, he lived more than three score and ten years.

From the first he made his chief researches along the lines of analytic chemistry, but he was a geologist also, and distinguished himself by thorough and precise investigation in mineralogy and crystallography. With the friendship and under the scrutiny of such men as Davy, Gilbert, Arago, Biot [be-o],

Klaproth [kläp'röt], Black, and Berzelius, he became an earnest laborer in the laboratory, and endeavored to simplify methods of research. Many of his most valuable experiments were made with a portable laboratory, compact and intricate. With minute scales having weights of a gram, and with other implements almost microscopic, he conducted accurate tests and arrived at conclusions which his successors have verified. It is said that he drew a platinum wire as fine as a spider's web, and constructed an effective galvanic battery in a thimble.

Smithson's contributions to scientific literature were embodied in twenty-seven papers, published by the Royal Society of London and in journals of the highest scientific character. To discover new truths for the promotion of the welfare of man was his ambition. Certain it is that when he died in Genoa in 1829 he was mourned by the *savants** of all western Europe as a scholar who had by patient personal investigation expanded the domain of human knowledge. In his will, three years before, he had written,

"I bequeath the whole of my property to the United States of America to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men."

When, in 1835, this provision matured and became vitalized by the death of intervening kindred, President Jackson appointed as commissioner to go to England and obtain the legacy, Richard Rush, the able son of that eccentric doctor who signed the Declaration of Independence. He went, and so vigorously did he prosecute the case in the Court of Chancery that the notorious laggard delivered to him the money within two years. He turned the whole amount into gold and shipped it on a homeward-bound packet.

The money was invested in Arkansas bonds. But eight years of animated debate in Congress were yet to precede the organization of the institution "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." Some men of eminence were opposed to the whole scheme,—opposed to accepting a bequest which it was alleged originated in British vanity; and a motion to decline the gift and send the money back to England "for any—

†[Rm-pir'fik.] From a Greek word meaning experience or practice without knowledge. "Derived, as a general proposition, from a narrow range of observation, without any warrant for its exactitude or for its wider validity."

[[Ne-ëps.] A French chemist (1765-1833).

*[Sä-vo.] The French word for men of learning. See note on Maupassant, page 49, in the present number.

body who may choose to claim it," received eight votes in the House of Representatives. But it was accepted, thanks to the enlightened and vigorous action of Clay, Buchanan, Leigh, Choate, and Webster in the Senate, and of John Quincy Adams, Jefferson Davis, Robert Dale Owen, John Bell, Hannibal Hamlin, Stephen A. Douglas, and Joshua R. Giddings in the House. Then arose the question, what to do with the legacy. The four-line sentence of the will was provokingly vague and indefinite. Many wanted a university. Many insisted on a library. Others demanded an extensive astronomic observatory.

Congress dallied with the question for many years. The state to which the money had been loaned, defaulted on the interest, so that the whole fund threatened to disappear. Debates were had in both Houses year after year, Congress after Congress, and it was eighteen years after Smithson died before the institution for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men was finally organized, with the President of the United States as its president, and a board of regents, who held their first session in 1846, to consider the various schemes that had been proposed and discussed in Congress for years. In many an eloquent speech Rufus Choate had contended that Smithson wanted to found a great library; Andrew Johnson held that the fund and accrued interest, amounting to \$900,000, should be spent in building public school-houses in the city of Washington; while John Quincy Adams had exhausted his great stores of learning in advocating the establishment of the largest astronomic observatory in the world.

The first business transaction of the regents was the election of Prof. Joseph Henry to be Secretary. He was a member of the faculty of the College of New Jersey, occupying the chair of natural philosophy. The choice was meant as a practical endorsement and adoption of the elaborate program which Henry had previously submitted for the proper expenditure of the Smithsonian fund. This came under four heads:

1. To stimulate men of talent to make original researches, by offering suitable rewards for memoirs containing new truths.
2. To appropriate annually a portion of the income for particular researches, under the direction of suitable persons.
3. To publish a series of periodical reports

on the progress of the different branches of knowledge.

4. To publish occasionally separate treatises on subjects of general interest.

It is desirable to notice that a gallery of art formed a part of the original plan, and that it has always been held that while the Institution is largely, it is by no means exclusively, devoted to science; and that it is an admitted object of that knowledge the Institution promotes to encourage, in the words of Henry, "the true, the beautiful, as well as the immediately practical."

The Smithsonian method of work is carried on in three general divisions: its system of publications; its conduct of foreign exchange; and its field of collection and original research.

The publications are (1) the "Contributions to Knowledge," (2) the "Miscellaneous Collections," (3) the "Annual Reports." The Annuals include transactions, lectures, original papers, and an account of the operations and progress of the Institution. The Contributions consist of positive additions to knowledge, generally resting on original research in the laboratory or in the field. The Miscellanies are meant to be auxiliaries to scientific study, treating of ethnology, natural history, chemistry, philology, etc.

These works are distributed gratuitously to learned societies, colleges, schools of technology,* public libraries, and state libraries, from most of which some sort of reciprocity is expected. The Institution has now published eight hundred different works, great and small. Of these the most costly and valuable are the twenty-six large quarto volumes entitled "Contributions." Altogether this constitutes a valuable library of science. The researches on which these volumes are founded have all been fostered and in part supported by the funds and administration of the Institution. Distributed as they are throughout the civilized world and largely used and quoted by scholars, they constitute a great memorial to the name of Smithson.

The diffusion of this vast body of literature throughout the world has been royally reciprocated, and similar publications of all the civilized governments and of all the learned

*[Tek-nol'o-gy.] Institutions established to aid those who intend "to become experts in one or at most a few branches, in which the fundamental principles of the [required] arts are taught." The word is derived from the Greek *tekne*, an art, and *logos*, discourse.

societies of the world are returned to Washington and utilized in the National Library. Already more than two hundred and twenty-five thousand books and pamphlets have been received in this manner, embracing all the great and costly transactions of learned societies. The proposition originally made in Congress to use the fund directly to found a library has been abundantly realized in this indirect manner.

Another important work which this Institution performs is through its extended system of literary and scientific exchange, foreign and domestic, by which thousands of packages of rare works and specimens are yearly transmitted between the most distant societies and individuals free of expense to senders or recipients. This service of explorers, investigators, and students is now pretty nearly complete. It is to-day the great and much-used medium of intercommunication for the scientific people of this country and countries abroad, and is everywhere known and recognized; its parcels pass all frontiers unquestioned, and transportation lines vie in friendly emulation to make the service more nearly perfect. It is believed that a large proportion of all international exchanges are now made through this agency.

The Smithsonian Institution is popularly known best by its great Museum of science and art. This has been especially well developed in its scientific department, in anthropology,* biology, and geology. Of the great quantities of objects that are brought in, only the finest typical specimens are retained, the rest being contributed to the various museums and institutions of learning in various parts of the country. It is not customary to purchase collections, for the Museum depends on the spontaneous labor and activity of its thousands of friends in all parts of the continent and the world. Every day brings in their lavish offerings. The secretary of the Smithsonian Institution is now endeavoring to enlarge the art department, and important contributions have already been made.

The National Museum was established by the Government in 1842, and was transferred from the Patent Office to the Institution in 1858. All the interesting flotsam† and jetsam

collected by the exploring parties of the War, Navy, Treasury, and Interior Departments, are turned in to fill the building where its treasures are now displayed. Congress annually appropriates \$200,000 for the care of the Museum. The Museum as constituted serves a double function: first, it is a repository of materials for scientific research; and second, its materials are so systematically arranged and displayed that it makes a valuable educational agency for the people who throng its corridors.

But the services of this Institution have been more and greater than those enumerated, for it has been the propagating house for research. Many men trained in its halls have gone out to other institutions in the country and become successful investigators. When the Institution was founded the western half of the United States was an unknown wilderness, and the exploring expeditions that were organized by the general government were inspired by their officers with the spirit of scientific research in all the departments of natural history, and to them were attached scholars who entered this great field to carry on investigations in a variety of lines. Geography, geology, climatology, mineralogy, paleontology,* botany, zoology, and ethnology were subjects of research thus fostered by the Institution. The reports of these expeditions became valuable largely by reason of the great scientific treatises which grew out of them; and gradually the intermittent researches thus initiated were more thoroughly organized and became permanent institutions for the increase and the diffusion of knowledge among men.

Early in the history of the Institution the science of meteorology was cultivated, but through the agency of voluntary assistants scattered over the country. Out of this has grown the present Weather Bureau, or Signal Service, as it is improperly called. The natural history investigation begun in the Smithsonian led gradually to the study of the fishes of

board to save a ship by lightening the burden. Used in a figurative sense.

*[Pa-le-on-to'l'o-gy.] The science of the ancient life of the earth, or of fossils. Greek, *palaio*s, ancient, *onda*, beings, and *logos*.—[Zō-ol'o-gy.] The science which treats of animals. Greek, *zō-on*, an animal.—[Eth-nol'o-gy.] The science of the races of men. Greek, *ethnos*, nation.—[Me-te-or-ol'o-gy.] The science which treats of the atmosphere and its phenomena. The Greek word from which it is derived means things high in the air, or raised from the ground.—[En-to-mo-log'ic.] Pertaining to the science of insects.

*[An-thro-pol'o-gy.] Greek, *anthropos*, man, and *logos*. "The science of man in his entire nature."—Biology, Greek, *bios*, life, the science of life.

†Shipwrecked goods floating on the sea; it is distinguished from jetsam, which means goods thrown over-

the rivers, lakes, and seas, and grew until a great Fish Commission was organized. Early in the history of the Institution attention was given to the prehistoric remains and the Indian tribes of North America, and this has led to the organization of the Bureau of Ethnology, the greatest institution for the study of the lower races of mankind ever organized on the globe. The Institution has also aided in building up the botanic and entomologic work of the government. Thus, in ways too many to be mentioned in a brief article, the Smithsonian Institution has been potent in conducting, promoting, and inspiring scientific research. The latest work of this character consists in founding a Zoölogical Garden in the picturesque hills near the city of Washington, where the most interesting species of the fauna of North America are to be collected and studied and an astro-physical* observatory is to be built.

The writer is of the opinion that no fund

* Pertaining to astronomical physics, or the science of the stars.

has ever been contributed to science which has been so wisely administered and so successful in the attainment of results as that given by the quiet student Smithsonian. The board of regents of the Institution has from the very first been composed of the greatest statesmen and scholars of America; and Henry, Baird, and Langley, the three secretaries on whom the administration has depended, have carried on this great work in such a manner as to command the respect and admiration of all the best elements of the civilized world.

The Smithsonian fund now amounts to \$703,000, and it can be increased to \$1,000,000, on which the government has agreed to pay an annual interest of six per cent. Under this clause of the act, bequests are being made to the Institution by those who desire to associate their names with benefactions to increase knowledge, whether of the true or of the beautiful, whether of science or art; and the amount of the fund may be expected, under such unusual conditions, soon to reach its legal limit.

SCIENCE, THE HANDMAID OF AGRICULTURE.

BY GEORGE WILLIAM HILL.

Of the United States Department of Agriculture.

"The great nations of Europe strain every effort to make science the handmaid of war; let it be the glory of the great American people to make science the handmaid of agriculture."

TIME was, and not so very long ago, when any reference to science in connection with agriculture was apt to be received by the average farmer with a smile of derision, if not, indeed, with an undisguised expression of impatience. To-day we find the majority of the farmers looking to science for aid in carrying on their work, and ready to complain, if anything, that the results of scientific investigation as relating to agriculture are not so widely diffused among them or so clearly presented to them as they ought to be. The sneer at science as applied to agriculture, is still to be met with occasionally, but it is generally confined to a class of people forming a part of our urban population, and conspicuous, usually, by the utter ignorance they display in regard to agricultural matters. To such people the above

quotation from the first report of the Secretary of Agriculture is of special significance. Such language, coming from so practical a man as Secretary Rusk, who has been a careful observer of agricultural development in this country and, indeed, closely identified with it for more than forty years, may be accepted as a significant indication of the relations which science must in the future bear to agriculture.

Among the many difficult problems with which the farmer is confronted, there is not one for the solution of which he must not look to the results of scientific investigation. To state them as concisely as possible, the chief needs of practical agriculture at the present time in this country, are, first: an increased yield from the land cultivated; second: remedies for, or still better, preventives of, the diseases of plants and animals, and of the destructive ravages of animals, birds, and insects; third: the extension of agricultural production so as to cover

as nearly as possible all the articles of home consumption for which we depend upon agricultural production; fourth: the extension of foreign markets for our agricultural products so as to provide a ready demand for those products of which we can most readily and economically furnish a surplus.

The popular impression which prevails as to the extraordinary productiveness of our soil, will suggest to many the idea that the first of the needs mentioned is a minor one. Unfortunately, while that popular impression is in the main justified by our natural conditions of soil and climate, we have been too apt to gather our impressions from figures which present to us the immense aggregate of our principal agricultural products. We are nevertheless compelled to admit when we consider them in the light of yield per acre, that our production falls short of that of many other countries. For instance, while our average yield of wheat is less than thirteen bushels to the acre, the average in Great Britain is considerably more than twice that, while in a few European countries, it is nearly twice as great, and in the greatest of all wheat-producing European countries, France, the wheat yield per acre exceeds our own by about fifty per cent.

It is not to be doubted that the conditions which bring about this comparatively low rate of yield in one of our principal cereal* crops, prevail to a great extent with reference to many other products as the natural consequence of the cheapness and abundance of land which have hitherto prevailed in this country. As the population increases and the lands yet available for tillage diminish, a different system of agriculture must prevail, and in this different system, a leading feature must be the application of the results of scientific investigation to practical agriculture. It will no longer be possible for the farmer to depend solely upon the results of his own experience. The frequent changes in the character of crops raised, necessitated by the increase of competition throughout the world, and the frequent changes of climate and soil brought about by the somewhat nomadic† character of our farming population, a tendency which frequently takes the

New England farmer into the valley of the Mississippi, and the farmer of the Central States into the far West and even to the Pacific coast, make it impossible for the successful farmer to rely solely upon his own experience. He must add to this a knowledge of the scientific principles upon which the practice of farming is based, and which under certain conditions will bring about certain results, a knowledge which his own common sense and intelligence must enable him to adapt to changed conditions, whether of product, of soil, or of climate. It is a very simple proposition that when forty acres of land will be worth as much as a hundred acres are now, the product of that forty acres will have to be made equal to that of a hundred acres to-day. Nor is it too much to hope that with the wonderful development which is being given in this country to scientific agriculture, such a result shall be obtained.

The study of the diseases of plants, of the ravages of insect pests and the insects that occasion them, of the animals and birds that injure and destroy our crops, has been carried on most actively in the past few years, and has revealed very astonishing results. Take, for instance, the treatment of our fruit orchards in order to remedy or prevent certain fungous diseases which, spreading with astonishing rapidity, have frequently almost destroyed the product of certain orchards for several years in succession. In many cases the remedial agents which science has placed at the disposal of the farmer have saved half or three-quarters of a crop or more, and to-day the spraying machine for their application is one of the indispensable implements of horticulture.

Probably it would be impossible to compute with any exactness the extent of the damage occasioned to the farmers by the ravages of insects, but it is almost equally impossible to exaggerate them. These tiny enemies exist in countless legions and are most determined immigrants, new, hitherto unknown varieties, being constantly added to our insect population. Scientific entomology can alone be depended on to teach us how to repel their ravages. In two notable instances, that of the scale insect of California (an importation from Australia) and of the chinch bug, science has recently given us striking examples of its wonderful power to aid the farmer; in the first case, by importing a parasitical insect, which, in that part of the

*[Se're-al.] Any of the annual grain plants, as wheat, rye, barley, oats, rice, corn. The word is derived from Ceres [se'res], the name of the Roman goddess of agriculture.

†[No-mad'ic.] Wandering, changing. From a Greek word meaning wandering about in search of pasturage.

world from which the scale insect had invaded our shores, keeps it in check, and which, being imported into this country, has already proved its ability to do the same good work for the California orange-grower that it has done for the Australian; in the second case, a disease occasioning extraordinary mortality among the chinch bugs has been maintained and propagated from year to year in the laboratory, to be, at the proper season, transmitted to the chinch bugs in the field. This plan has already been found to result in greatly minifying their numbers and consequently their ravages.

Instances could be multiplied far beyond the limits of the present paper, to illustrate the numerous ways in which science has served as the "handmaid of agriculture." Particularly when we come to the diseases of animals do we find that the service rendered to the farmer by the development of pathological* science has been constant and of late years greatly multiplied. The losses occurring in other countries, and notably in Great Britain, from contagious pleuro-pneumonia,† can hardly be estimated, but competent authorities did not hesitate to declare as long ago as ten years since, that agriculture in Great Britain had suffered a loss of over \$400,000,000 from this cause. Now the comparative immunity enjoyed in this country from the ravages of this disease, and its ultimate control and suppression, are due entirely to the scientific investigations made into the nature of that disease in those countries where it has prevailed for years, upon which the energetic and effective measures of the national government have been based.

It goes without saying that no adequate remedy can be found for a disease, the cause of which is not understood, and that the knowledge that a disease is incurable will save vast sums of money and large expenditure of time in efforts to find a remedy. So in regard to the prevention of diseases which are known to be non-communicable except by actual contact, and which can therefore be prevented by rigid quarantine.‡ The inves-

tigations made of late years into that mysterious disease known as Texas fever, and into the nature and causes of hog cholera and swine plague furnish examples of a striking nature as to the utter helplessness of our cattle raisers without the aid of scientific knowledge and scientific investigation. Undoubtedly many complaints are heard, and not infrequently from the farmers themselves, because science does not do more or has seemed to accomplish nothing in this or that direction; but these complaints, after all, often arise from the growing feeling of dependence upon science which our farmers are beginning to entertain, and as a rule reflect only the momentary discouragement of one, who, seeking counsel with confidence of relief, finds himself, for the time being, disappointed. The truth is that even where only negative results are obtained from scientific investigation, much, after all, must be credited to it; for, as we narrow down the possible causes of diseases, we reduce the labors of our successors by limiting the field of their inquiry, and thus hasten the solution of the problem. On the subject of breeding, our most successful breeders are, some of them even without knowing it, profiting greatly by the work of the scientist Darwin.

Of late years, science has been investigating the nature of foods of both man and beast with some most interesting and economically valuable results,—results which have not only an important bearing on the business of cattle-raising as regards economy in feeding, but, in the case of parent animals as regards their constitution and that of their offspring.

While in this matter of food values, as we might say, chemistry has played a most important part, it is to the development of this same science we must look for the ultimate substitution of home-grown sugar for the imported article, and the transfer of the \$100,000,000 which we now pay yearly to the foreign producer, to the pockets of our American farmers. Chemical investigation has already shown how the sugar product of Louisiana may be greatly increased without adding a single acre to the area of the Louisiana sugar plantations. Chemistry has revealed to us the wonderful increase to be obtained in the sorghum yield by the use of alcohol, and in regard to beet sugar, it is chemistry that

*[Path-o-log'-i-cal.] Pertaining to diseases; pathology being the name of the science which has for its object the knowledge of disease. Greek, *pathos*, suffering.

†An inflammatory disease affecting the pleura, or principal serous membrane of the thorax.

‡[Kwor'an-tên.] A Latin derivative meaning originally a space of forty days. It is one of the class of words whose meaning has become "wholly disengaged from its etymology." It is now given to the enforced isolation for

any period of time of persons or objects suspected of being infected with malignant or contagious diseases.

must, in this country as in Europe, attend and guide every step in the development of the industry.

The transfer of the Weather Bureau to the control of the Department of Agriculture suggests the value of meteorological science to agriculture. So far the popular impression as regards the Weather Bureau is that it is simply a sort of more or less reliable system of weather prediction; but, whatever justification may have existed for such an impression in the past, it is quite clear that in the future, one of the principal features of the weather service will be the study of the climatic conditions of the country. All our efforts to diversify our agricultural products, and to extend in this or that section of our vast country the cultivation of products which have been successfully and profitably grown in other sections, must be greatly aided by a thorough knowledge of the soil and climatic conditions which prevail both in the sections where such cultivation is already successful, and in those where it is desired to extend it.

For instance, in our efforts to substitute home-grown for imported products, experiments in introducing foreign plants to our own country would be greatly facilitated by a knowledge of the climatic conditions where grown, and of climatic conditions in all sections of our own country, so that the selection of the section suitable to their growth in this country could be readily and wisely made.

As our population increases, and the area still available for agricultural purposes diminishes, science will not only have to provide means by which the productiveness of the existing area may be increased, but to enlarge the area to be devoted to tillage; it must reclaim our swamp lands; it must find means for irrigating our arid lands; it must go even further, and enable us, by a judicious disposal of all the means at our command, and by the wise preservation and extension of our forest conditions, on strictly scientific lines, to reduce the arid land area, increasing the precipitation* over large sections now regarded either as arid or subarid, and at the same time by aiding in the regularity of the rainfall and the control of surface waters, enable us to reduce the number and violence of freshets and floods and the terrible destruction of property caused by them.

In the direction of statistics, which is it-

* Moisture from the atmosphere such as dew, rain, mist, frost, etc., deposited on the earth's surface.

self a science, the aid of the expert statistician must be sought by the farmers for the collection and dissemination of information relating to all phases of the supply and demand for agricultural products. It is essential to successful agriculture, that at least closely approximate information should be had of the home demand for all classes of agricultural products, as well as of the character of products best suited to the demands of the various sections of the country. Account must also be taken of the large amount of agricultural products imported from foreign countries, our constant effort being either to succeed in growing at home the products so imported, or to find some satisfactory substitute therefor, which our people may be induced to accept. Then we must secure equally accurate information in regard to the conditions of foreign markets, the character of products for which a demand exists in these principal markets, the form in which they are found to be most readily salable, the prices they command, and the places whence they are imported, in order that we may be prepared intelligently and effectually to compete with foreign producers, as the vast extent of our territory and the variations of our soil and climate ought to enable us to do. Practically, therefore, the statistical inquiry needed for the service of the farmer must extend throughout the world.

After such a review of these needs of agriculture which we must look to science to supply, it is gratifying to reflect that there is a department of the national government specially charged with this responsible duty, namely, the control of science for the benefit of agriculture. It is, however, unfortunate that the ideas of so many persons on the subject of the Department of Agriculture and its mission, should be as erroneous or vague as they usually are, the result being much unnecessary difficulty in securing for that Department from Congress the means necessary for effectually conducting its work and extending it in needed directions. This would not be the case if Congressmen understood from their constituents that the Department was esteemed by them as of the first importance.

While little more has been done in this brief review of the relations of science to agriculture, than to skim lightly over the surface of this vastly important subject, enough surely has been said to convince even the casual reader that farming in the future must be quite a different occupation from

farming in the past or even in the present day. The occupation of farming in older countries has been, so far as the light of science has permitted, far more intelligently conducted in the main, than has been the case, at least during the last quarter of a century, in this country. Things are changing in this respect in the United States, and the change, like most other things in this country, will be a rapid one. Five years ago there were barely two or three, and these but moderately equipped, establishments devoted to scientific investigation in the interest of agriculture; to-day there are more than three score such establishments in this country; indeed, the principal criticism to which this work is open in this country is elicited by conditions almost inseparable from such a rapid development. The character of the work performed, must, in the nature of things, be in many cases superficial, but a recognition of this fault will in time surely correct it. In every state and territory colleges exist, designed especially for the instruction, I ought rather to say, scientific education, of those who intend to follow agriculture as an occupation. In many states we find numerous organizations devoted to the extension and development of some special line of agriculture, while the farmers' institutes are spreading among the farmers a greater knowledge of the scientific principles which underlie their calling, and upon which alone they can depend for making that calling successful.

So great, indeed, has been the change among farmers regarding what science can do for them, that scientific workers have found it necessary to utter words of caution

and point out that science, after all, can only lay down certain principles, and that it is upon the intelligent understanding and adaptation of these principles to his own environment, that each farmer must look for successful results. Hand in hand with this recognition of the interdependence of science and profitable agriculture, are the changes occasioned by world-wide competition, growing facilities of transportation, a greater freedom of intercourse between different nations—changes which will in this country be greatly intensified ere many years by the increase in value of farm lands.

This will bring about conditions which will make it hard for an uneducated farmer to make a living, and as the ranks of farm labor are increased by the addition of those who will cease to own their farms because they cannot farm them profitably, the advantages accruing to the intelligent, business-like, educated farmer, will be increased. All this points most certainly to the not far-distant day when the American farmer must be a man so well educated and intelligent as to be capable of at least appreciating scientific work and investigation, and apprehending readily the teachings of science and applying them practically to his own service. In those days we will no more hear the term "a common farmer," in derogation of the noblest occupation open to the sons of man, and everywhere we will find convincing evidence that the earnest appeal of the present Secretary of Agriculture, that science may in this country be made the handmaid of agriculture, as in Europe it has been the handmaid of war, has not been disregarded by his countrymen.

THE THEORY OF FICTION-MAKING.*

AS DRAWN FROM THE MASTERS.

BY MAURICE THOMPSON.

AT no time in the past history of literature has the making of fiction occupied so large a part of public attention as at present; nor was there ever before a time when the novelist's art asserted itself with such insistence from almost every point of view. Most of us can remember, and it was not so very long ago, when it was

scarcely deemed pardonable for a strictly orthodox Christian to read a novel aloud to his family. I may add that it is a dangerous thing for him to do even now, unless he is quite sure of his author's theory of art; but the objection to novel-reading is no longer a general one. Good stories are accepted to-day as powerful educating agents; notable fiction is appreciated from the pulpit as promptly as from the editor's chair; and, in-

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

deed, all along the front rank of civilization the word is passed that the art of fiction-writing is a noble one.

When the student, however, comes to attempt the investigation of novel-making, the first thing he bumps his head against is a lamp-post in the dark. What is a novel? Has any writer answered this question? At first blush it looks easy; any sophomore will attempt to formulate the definition; but almost immediately he will bump his head for want of light as he gropes for the substance he needs to materialize his theory withal.

We hear much about "realism" and "idealism" in the current discussions of fiction, and these are good terms if we can fix their meaning and give to each its limit of significance. Perhaps if we take a glance over the history of novel-writing we shall be able to understand what ought to be meant when a certain novelist is called a realist.

Going back along the line of European literary evolution we shall find the true germ of the modern novel in the Greek tragedies and comedies. If we cared to use the terms of natural science we might say that these tragedies and comedies were specialized epics, showing the first step from the simple toward the complex in fiction. It is scarcely profitable, however, to make this remote journey into a dead language and an alien literature in our search after a safe point from which to look over the subject we have in hand.

If we examine the works of Chaucer and Shakspeare we shall be far enough back for all practical purposes; for they represent, more clearly than any other writings ever penned by man, the naked spirit of fiction. Chaucer had read the old epics, tragedies, and comedies, and had some knowledge of the lesser romances of the Greek and Roman writers; moreover he was familiar with the French and Italian fictions such as they had come to be in his day. In his "Canterbury Tales" he made an effort in the direction of producing a series of novels. He chose verse and rhyme instead of prose as his vehicle of expression; but it is necessary for us to know in the outset that it is a mere matter of taste whether fiction is to be done in verse or prose. The taste of Chaucer's day demanded verse. As the English language waxed stronger apace with the development of a great people, English genius began to reach out after a broader freedom in the art of fiction-making, and as it got firmer hold of

life it naturally adopted a more flexible form of expression than Chaucer had discovered.

We call Shakspeare a poet and dramatist; but he was essentially a novelist as well. Each one of his great plays is a romance which if turned into prose by a master of the novelist's art would be a novel not less powerful than the drama itself. Indeed, Scott is the only writer of prose fiction whose works can be compared with what Shakspeare's would be if turned into prose to the best advantage. A little careful comparison along the line thus suggested will clearly open to the student a view of the genesis of prose fiction as it has been made by all of the greatest masters of romance. The secret of the charm which has kept Shakspeare's dramas perennially acceptable to the human imagination is identical with that which makes Scott's novels as welcome to-day as they were when first published. Bear in mind that Scott and Shakspeare are above all else romancers; they came in the succession of romancers descended from the ancient masters of Greek fiction, the epic-makers, the tragedy-makers, the weavers of comedy. It is from these that are descended the tribe of romancers as contradistinguished from the tribe of realists.

Let us now look to the antecedents of the realists. Their line of ancestry is much shorter than that of the romancers; let us see if their blood is as noble and their achievements as admirable.

In the days of Shakspeare lived a man by the name of John Lyly, who wrote prose novels in which are found the beginnings of "realism" as we have it to-day. Lyly's effort was a weak one; but it produced a marked change in fiction in the direction of introducing what may be called dramatic conversation. His novel "Euphues" gives us the first glimpse, the first faint foretaste of the social fiction out of which has grown the modern romance of manners. In his style, bad as it was, can be felt the crude elements of the present analytical method which is the distinctive feature of current realism. He wrote for women and it was women that his works most influenced; and I may remark that the analytical society novels of to-day have no appreciable value in the estimation of the average man; they are read almost exclusively by women. It was John Lyly who first set the example of making a long, wordy, much-talk novel come to abso-

lutely nothing in the end. The two books of "Euphues" are like two great bowls of rose-water pessimism; they are tedious, sweetish, mildly interesting, and have a little dirty dregs at the bottom.

From Lyly forward to the publication of "Robinson Crusoe" by Daniel Defoe the development of the English novel was along the line suggested by "Euphues." What seems to be the inherent trend of analysis in social fiction marked Lyly's epoch; the moral turn was steadily downward, though cleverness in execution rapidly increased through Lodge and Greene and on through Richardson and Smollet and Fielding. Richardson was the first to analyze character after the modern fashion. He analyzed downward to dross and all the realists have followed his example. Presently we shall see why this pessimistic* outcome is inevitable to realism in fiction.

We must now turn to France; for it is there that we shall find another source of realistic romance from which comes down a stream of influence the strongest at work today in the field of fiction-making. Late in the seventeenth century Madame La Fayette wrote *La Princesse de Cleves*, a work which brought the art of building the analytical novel forward almost to its present level of smooth, commonplace perfection. She set the pace in this book for that class of writers who look upon the love of a married woman for a man not her husband as the most delightful of all the subjects of fiction. From that day to this, realism in the novel of society has busied itself very largely with delineating illicit love in one form or another. Madame La Fayette's novel marks the first strong movement toward that method of minute delineation and tedious analysis of conditions and motives which reached its zenith in the novels of Honoré de Balzac. Balzac, however, was a realist chiefly in manner; many of his characters were ideally romantic, some of them supremely lovely and pure, many of them almost unimaginably hideous.

In England realism of a mild, feminine sort flowered forth in the novels of Fanny Burney and Jane Austen. Commonplace people un-

*[Pes-al-mis'tik.] Characterized by pessimism, the tendency to look upon the dark side of things and to believe that the world is as bad as possible. It is derived from the Latin word for worst, *pessimus*. The contrasting word is optimism from the Latin adjective for best, *optimus*.

der commonplace conditions have never been more faithfully sketched than is done in Miss Austen's stories; but such works lack the magnetic influence of romance, and although a certain class of critics have persistently continued to praise and recommend them they live a dull life amid the dust of respectable libraries. It has been impossible for unstinted critical appreciation and liberal advertisement to give any wide recent circulation to them. Their chief value to the student lies in their contrast with the prose romantic fiction which at that time was best represented by Godwin's "Caleb Williams," "The Monk," by Lewis, and the "Mysteries of Udolpho," by Ann Radcliffe.

About the time that Miss Austen's work was ending, the mighty star of Scott arose and swept up the sky. The power of Shakspeare was turned from verse to prose and the magic of romance was for the first time set in a great novel. Scott had tried his hand with astonishing success at writing rhymed stories; but it was not till the Waverley novels began to appear that the world was made aware of the true scope and dignity of the prose romance.

Since Scott the greatest romancers, as contradistinguished from the realists, have been Goethe [gō'teh], Hugo [ūgo], Dumas [du-mā], Balzac at his best, Dickens, and George Eliot. I am aware that Balzac and George Eliot have been called realists; but I cannot see any reason for the classification. Balzac's best characters are all extraordinary people displayed under extraordinary conditions. The same may be said of George Eliot's creations, and in a way her stories are epics. In "Romola" [rom'o-la] we have a romantic tragedy of almost the highest order. Comparing her works with those of Jane Austen, one is amazed that critics should think of classing the two writers together. Miss Austen was a realist, just as Mr. Henry James and Mr. Howells are realists; George Eliot was a romancer, just as Shakspeare and Goethe were romancers. Miss Austen was descended from John Lyly; George Eliot's first ancestors were the great Greek masters of tragedy.

If we look into art we find that every enduring product of it is a romance; that is, it deals with some extraordinary phase, development, or condition of nature which it presents not as a literal transcript of what the artist has actually seen, but as in some degree an

idealization of prophetic interpretation of nature through the imagination. No mere scientific report, no matter how minutely correct in its details, can belong to art. The dissections of science are necessarily confined to matter; the imagination of the artist has nothing whatever to do with them save to use them in framing and realizing his ideals, his inventions, his creations. This is why the genuine realist, who professes to be only a reporter of actual observations, cannot produce enduring work. He is at best a mere time-server whose works die with the phase of popular, superficial manners that inspired them. Since the beginning of literature, painting, music, or sculpture, no artist has been able to leave to the world a work of mere realism that can be classed with the enduring, perennially fascinating masterpieces. This is because realism is, from its very nature, of the earth earthy and has no soul, no appeal to man's immortal aspirations, no permanent hold upon the universal, human sympathies.

At first in glancing over the field of realistic fiction we are puzzled to understand why all the realists are pessimists in one degree or another. It is the realist who maintains that it is flabby art to make a novel turn out well in the end; scare up one of these so-called "disciples of truth" whenever and wherever you may, and you will find that he has been picking flaws in the human heart or drawing a dismal picture of human depravity. Why is this? It is because his confession of faith binds him to repudiate heroism of every sort. To him evil is the only great truth, and man's flesh the only thing worth depicting.

The true theory of fiction both light and heavy is to be drawn from the incomparable plays of Shakspeare. The mere vehicle of expression, whether verse or prose, painting, music or sculpture, is a matter of choice. Every product of genuine art is a fiction, not a transcript. Shakspeare makes his romances seem undoubtedly real, and this is the highest test of workmanship; his people are people, his heroes are heroes, his lovers are lovers indeed; but when you come to look for mere commonplace folk in his plays you are hard pressed for a single notable example. The Iagos [e-ä'go], the Hamlets, the Lears, the Othellos, the Juliets, the Rosalinds, the Hermiones [her-mi'o-ne], the Falstaffs, and all the rest come before us in flesh and blood, we touch them, we hear their voices, they win our sympathies or stir our passions; but they

are not mere human transcripts. They are Shakspeare's creations and they live by the force of his genius.

Taking Shakspeare as the best and highest authority and drawing from his works the theory of fiction-making, the following would seem to be cardinal elements:

I. There must be a story to tell.

II. The story must introduce us to extraordinary people; not impossible people, but people whose circumstances and whose lives are able to engender powerful interest.

III. The story must be thoroughly well imagined and told with consummate skill.

IV. The atmosphere of actual human life must be so artfully hung over all the scenes that we feel it, breathe it, and live in it while we read.

V. Every element of the story must be referable to the sources of human passion, aspiration, credulity, fancy, faith, or manners. Nothing in it must be untrue to the universal human possibilities; but yet each dramatic crisis must turn on some extraordinary conjunction. The commonplace must not preponderate.

VI. There must be absolute dramatic vision; without this the novel is a mere tale, the drama a mere play, the painting a lifeless transcript, the music a meaningless tinkle, the sculpture a form without suggestion.

VII. Last comes style, which is the final stamp of the personality of genius. There is no such thing as a masterpiece without the presence of this indestructible preservative.

Oftentimes we have come upon a novel the fascination of which we could not at first understand. There was nothing in the story, not one notable character, not one memorable scene, not one genuine creation. We had been caught momentarily by the magnetism of genius through style wasted on a worthless task. It is this frittering away of noble powers on ignoble productions that is the shame of so-called realism. No conscientious critic can read the almost perfectly told stories of Guy de Maupassant* and not frequently feel this ruthless waste of the rare and wonderful gift of genius. When Maupassant is a romancer he comes nearer the line of perfect fiction-making; when he is a realist he merely gilds filth.

*[Mô-päs-so.] The final o has the sound of o in song with all of the n added save that which connects it with the g. This French nasal sound cannot be fully represented; it must be learned from a teacher.—M. T.

In America realism as practiced by our best novelists and story-writers has not yet fallen quite into the gutter. It has taken Jane Austen rather than Madame La Fayette for its teacher; but any close observer can see that it is beginning to be restive under the restraints of decency; the fascination of unholy passion has got hold of it. Already the married woman who loves another man more than her husband is taking her place in our "novels of real life," and she is coming into our fiction to stay; realism cannot exist without her. The heroine of realism rarely loves a man whom it is honest or honorable for her to love; its hero is usually bent upon having another man's wife, and at the end of all it leaves the reader wondering what the author meant by making everybody so thoroughly disgusted with life since nobody seemed to have a conscience.

But what is romance as we understand it, set over against realistic fiction? It is not the wonder story that satisfies the term. Scott, Dickens, and George Eliot have demonstrated what it is in its best form for English-reading people, and it is to their works that I will confine myself during the few further remarks that I have space for. Let us take three novels, say "Romola," "Ivanhoe," and "A Tale of Two Cities"; not that these stand for the best art of the three masters; but because in a general way they best represent romance in its most ultra phases. What are the chief points of appeal to universal human sympathy in these books? I will try to express them in terms as condensed as possible: they are heroism, self-sacrifice, foiled villainy, and poetical justice. When these are powerfully presented as we find them in the novels we have chosen, the conditions are fulfilled by which fiction becomes immortal, because in all ages in every possible stage of genuine enlightenment the appeal is irresistible. In "Romola" the heroine is extraordinary and truly heroic and in the end villainy perishes. In "Ivanhoe" the hero is good, brave, true, as well as exceptionally strong; the king is wholly a king of his time; the women are noble, sweet, pure; the book ends satisfactorily. The "Tale of Two Cities," much weaker than the other two, is yet in the Shakspearean mold, since it presents a romantic creation clearly within human possibilities and rounded to the general form of universal human aspiration.

We cannot take mere present popularity as

any test of value; but popularity running through a long number of years and through marked changes of civilization must be respected even by critics. Mutations of taste in style never affect these masterpieces. Style is much, but it is not everything; the turning of admirable phrases and the fine play of diction cannot compensate in fiction for the lack of creative energy and dramatic force.

In conclusion I may say that realism is always special, narrow, and shallow in its appeal; its fascination is sometimes very strong but it is momentary. You read and you care for it no longer; it leaves you dissatisfied and worried, as if you had been dealing with a peevish and hopeless invalid. It is the realists who study small communities and dissect diseased bodies; they do not care for any form of the extraordinary, except the extraordinarily mean, vile, flippant, unsuccessful, maudlin, or hardened. To them art means the presentation of failure, defeat, despair, in a word, pessimism.

It will be seen upon examination that romance, as understood by Shakspeare and as rendered into prose form by Dickens, Scott, George Eliot, Hugo, and Dumas, is not to be "referred to the committee on the study of Jack the Giant-Killer and the Arabian Nights"; it is truly the romance of real life. The only difference between realism and true romanticism in fiction is a difference in the appreciation of the nature and meaning of human aspiration. One deals with us as if we were animals to be subjected to vivisection; the other addresses itself to our humanity. One is appreciated only by those who have acquired an unnatural appetite; the other satisfies a universal demand of the unspoiled man. A few pampered individuals find ease for a morbid nature in reading the literature of pessimism; but every healthy mind finds sweetness and comfort in the optimism of genuine romance. This is why not one great master of art in all the past ages is found to have been a realist. Genius has no wings save the wings of hope. Somewhere in every great work of art burns the generous fire of faith in the possibilities of human happiness and in the appreciation of heroism by the world. The true theory of fiction (and all art is fiction) is to be found in those works that have charmed the whole world for generations.

End of Required Reading for October.

AUTUMN.

BY IRENE PUTNAM.

WHAT sings my bluebird in Autumn weather,
Raindrops sliding adown his wing?
Though Summer and sunlight are flown together,
My bluebird carols the song of Spring.

What shall I sing, bird, I, autumn-hearted,
Whose long to-morrow but grief may bring?
My Love and Joy are alike departed.
Still let me carol the song of Spring.

All the world will be dark and raining
If rain and darkness, O bird, we sing,
But light will shine if with no complaining
Still our hearts carol the song of Spring.

SOCIAL SCIENCE IN SOCIETY.

BY JOHN HABBERTON.

SOCIETY is an aggregation of families. It is not merely a collection of human units; if it were, then an army or a ship's crew might constitute society, to the extent of the number of persons present. In an army or a ship's crew there is likely to be a fair proportion of men of intelligence and character, anxious to do the right thing at the right time, and the influence of these men upon their comrades is beneficial. But the effect of a number of men congregated for a special purpose is limited in its results to society through the special work to be done. No one underrates the probable influence of a hundred or more young men or women in a college or academy, yet no one would think of calling such a body "society," except in a limited sense.

Society being, therefore, simply a number of families, having some relations and interests in common, the importance of the family as a factor in all social science problems becomes manifest. That in any such community there are always some bachelors, unmarried women, and strangers, who are not members of any family organization in the vicinity, does not change the general fact; these individuals are merely exceptions, such as are found to all rules.

Conclusions and applications in social science depend absolutely, in any community, upon the opinions and acts—what is called the "moral sentiment"—of society. Law itself is of no effect except as supported and enforced by public opinion—that is, the will of society. For instance, some states still have, in their statute books, laws forbidding the use of profane language, and prescribing penalties for this offense against morality, but for some reason they never are enforced; the plain though unpleasant truth is that, through carelessness rather than profane intention, the use of bad language is so common that an average jury or justice would hesitate to make an example of any one. In some states there are prohibition laws, to pass which many thousands of good men and women have labored long and earnestly, and at great expense to themselves. Yet in these same states liquor is largely sold and used, not because of any defect in the terms of the law, but because public opinion—the will of society at large—is not strong and active enough to encourage the officers of the law to do their duty. It is not that the majority of the people approve of the use of liquor, but that they are so indulgent of some offenders, who otherwise are not bad citizens, that they will not act as

informers or qualify as jurymen in a liquor-case. Many laws regarding other and graver offenses are equally "a dead letter" on the statute book, not that the offenses themselves are regarded with any favor, but because society, as a whole, has not yet reached that condition of mind which regards a wrong inflicted upon one individual as detrimental to all.

It is this defect or imperfection of society which has given cause for all the crack-brained theories classed under the term "Socialism." In the abstract, there is nothing dreadful in socialism, for the term signifies merely a closer union of individuals for mutual protection and benefit. Were society to realize and improve its opportunities and duties, there soon would be no socialists left but a few irreconcilables whose proper place would be the state prison. Unfortunately, however, society passively permits so many attacks upon individual rights and so many abuses of power—so many monopolies, "rings," and other injustices, that socialism finds numerous excuses for breeding discontent and announcing ridiculous or alarming theories. Anarchy itself—which is a very different thing from socialism—would have no advocates were society to do its full duty.

It is only through the sentiment and action of society that any problem of social science can be solved. Earnest students who also are careful thinkers may write exhaustive and convincing treatises on schools, jails, pauperism, drainage, the care of the poor, or the rate of taxation; such subjects have been written upon to enormous extent and with admirable sense, but all of them combined have not been able to frame one single law and have it enforced; they cannot even have a law proposed at Washington or any state capital unless they have distinct expression of public opinion to back them. No one knows better than professional lawmakers that the statute books of all the states are already filled with laws of which no one thinks to avail himself; consequently they do not interest themselves in any proposition unless it has ample and active support. Proposed legislation, no matter how beneficial, is never looked into in earnest unless there is a strong show of desire and argument—a delegation of the people to go to the legislative chamber to explain what they want and why they want it.

All this is known to lawmakers, and to

lawbreakers also, but the public seems generally ignorant or apathetic on the subject. It is still the fashion to regard the government as something aside from the people, instead of the formal expression of the people's will. So many generations of our ancestors have believed in the divine right of kings and other "powers that be" that posterity rids itself but slowly of the notion that men were made for the government instead of the government for men. In business and politics men know better than this: when these men want laws made or changed they organize large deputations to visit legislative bodies to say so; though they may be merely selfish in their desires they generally succeed.

Society must take social science in charge, not as an abstract study, but to apply known laws to the need of the period, whatever that may be. The work may seem endless, but if it is worth doing at all it deserves continuous effort and intelligence. To get together in clubs once in a while and listen to carefully written treatises on subjects of general interest is quite right, in the interest of education in social science, but to agree on the subject should not be, as too frequently it is, the conclusion of the whole matter; it should be merely the beginning—the beginning of work—of the enforcement of ideas. To chat, to the point of full agreement, about some neighborhood necessity or neighborhood nuisance, is quite right and desirable, for it is only by comparison of views and facts that men become united on any subject. But when a conclusion is reached all the thought and talk will have been wasted unless action begins and continues until the desired end is gained.

It is impossible to speak too earnestly on this subject, for society does not seem to know its power, or care to use it. Communities, like many individuals, are lazy; like many individuals they seem so satisfied after "relieving their minds" that they will continue to endure wrongs or postpone reforms a little longer. To fight with the hands is easier than to use the mind as a weapon, yet communities—or nations—which have bettered their condition by recourse to the right of revolution, have first endured long years, sometimes centuries, of oppression. One of the most flagrant abuses of power ever known in the United States was that perpetrated by the infamous "Tweed Ring" of the metropolis a few years ago. The

tax-payers were being robbed annually of millions of dollars; they knew it; the newspapers told them so; individuals gave facts and figures, until the subject became the staple of conversation. Yet the wrong was endured as patiently as if it were a virtue. One day society, or a few members of it, organized for the purpose of bringing the matter to the attention of the courts; from that moment the Ring began to go to pieces.

But it is not only in social interests connected with politics that society is listless, or seems not to know its duties and powers. None of the servants—called officials—of the people can do their full duty unless supported and stimulated by active public sentiment. From the street-cleaner with his broom to the pastor in his study, all men work best when they feel that other men are looking at them. The organized charities and great benevolent and philanthropic enterprises of the world languish when not conscious of active interest and sympathy of the people around them. All these matters are strictly within the domain of social science, whatever other titles they may severally bear, or however much they may be affected by politics or religion. They exist for society; derive their entire support, material and physical, from society, and society excluding none of its members is responsible for their success or failure.

Society should test its attitude toward social science by the divine rule, "The tree is known by its fruit." Be its immediate and pressing interests great or small, their condition is an indication of the quality of the community having them in charge, and attempts to shift the responsibilities of the many upon the shoulders of a few cannot deceive any fair observer.

The great trouble of organized society in putting forth effort in any direction, is to begin. We have such a multitude of officials in all departments of human interest that we seem to have lost the faculty, as a body, of doing anything. We depend upon those who are specially charged with certain duties, forgetting that it is the duty of officials or social leaders to execute orders—not to devise them. In olden times those who saw that anything needed doing proceeded to do it themselves; if they did not, they knew that only they themselves were to blame. Nowadays, however, society seems determined to prove the truth of the saying that "What is

everybody's business is nobody's business."

We need more of the old-time sense of individual responsibility—the feeling which makes each person in thorough earnest in thinking of whatever demands thought, and in devising methods of action and uniting men to carry the plans into execution. It is said that the inhabitants of a large rural district in California once spent much of their time for two or three years in talking about irrigation. They knew their land needed more water than the average rainfall supplied, and that an abundant supply could be had from a small river not far away, and that the lay of the land facilitated the bringing of the water by a ditch. They told one another how much money a company might make by digging a ditch, and how nice it would be for the state to dig it, and how, really, the general government ought to do the work. Meanwhile they lived on in uncertainty from year to year as to how their crops would turn out. When there was a poor yield, they would tell one another that it was all because there was no irrigating ditch; then they would fall to abusing the county and state and general government, in a manner which left them exactly where they were before, minus some wasted breath. One very bad season roused them to such a state of excitement that they gathered in mass meeting, to the number of two or three hundred. All the old remarks were made again, in speeches, essays, and papers. Congressmen, legislators, and local officials and every one else concerned in any way were soundly berated—except themselves. Finally a new settler arose and offered a few resolutions, as follows:

First, That we need an irrigating ditch.

Second, That we dig it ourselves.

Third, That we begin work to-morrow, and stick to it until we finish it.

The resolutions were carried, the ditch was dug, and then every one wondered why that plan had not been thought of before. Society at large needs an infusion of the practical spirit of the California resolutions.

Society being responsible for its own condition, and being the sole organization for which all work for humanity is done, should realize its duty to inform and control its own members. Individuals who "do as they please," who seem to say with ancient Pistol, "The world is mine oyster," are far too numerous, because too freely tolerated. Society, in all its classes, from the highest to

the lowest is far too enduring toward its careless, indolent, and aggressive members. Pity for the weak may be a virtue, but toleration of the wicked is a vice, and one which is far too common. The social circle, in the limited sense of the term, is not jealous enough of its rights; it is too willing to drift at times when it should oppose the current. It is too willing to judge by appearances,—too reluctant to assert itself. Instead of making its leaders, it allows self-made leaders to proclaim themselves, regardless of fitness, and it follows such leaders as unquestioningly as a train of mules follows the "bell mare." The higher a set is in the social scale, the greater the reluctance to ostracize any member, no matter how faulty, who wears good clothes and can behave agreeably—on occasion. The rude ways of the lower classes are not worth imitating, but the spirit behind them—the refusal to associate with persons not of good moral character, or who are known to lead double lives—could be used with great benefit in some circles which hold themselves in high esteem. It is useless to devise ways of preventing crime, discouraging the use of liquor, increasing the efficiency of management of public affairs, and lessening public expenses while the polite drunkard, the fashionable gambler, the conscienceless debtor, the destroyer of women, the faithless official, and the skilled "hoodler" are countenanced by polite society and by their example cause more demoralization and harm than can ever be wrought by the vulgar criminals who occasionally get into jail.

Perhaps some adult readers can remember how, when they first began to be men or women, they wondered at the toleration, by society, of some person or persons of known improper life. Perhaps, too, they can remember how unsatisfactory to their moral sense were the answers to such questions as they asked of their elders on the subject, and how some other young people, of less moral stamina, went astray because of the influence of these unsavory characters—the feeling that if one could be clever it was not so very dreadful to be bad, except in ways that might get one into jail. To concern one's self with the results of evil-doing yet permit the causes to go unchecked is the most alarming variety of "saving at the spigot and wasting at the bung," but it is done by every social circle which permits persons of stained character to associate with the young—the most

numerous, eager, curious, irrepressible class that frequents social gatherings.

Society, at its best—which is not necessarily the richest or "highest" society—is one of humanity's grandest educators. Those who sneer at it, assuming that it is merely a means of frivolity and careless pleasure are describing parts, which unfortunately exist, but not the whole. To lack society is to be weak in many respects in which all should be strong. Because one is sometimes his own best company is no sign that he should have no other; many of the wisest men and women, leaders of church, state, and public opinion owe their knowledge and success in life not to their education at college or from books, but to what they have learned in society. Contact of mind with mind, if both be good, results in education the value of which can not be overestimated. It needs not that both or either shall be great; two respectable boys chatting together will brighten each other's wits to a degree which neither is likely to attain for himself. Two good girls, exchanging views on any subject, be it only beaux or the cut of dresses, are likely to be wiser than they were an hour before. The young man and young woman who do not noticeably improve in each other's society must in some way be wrong in heart or mind. All the way upward in the scale of intelligence, human beings are better by all the contact they have with other minds worth knowing, and at the very top of the scale will be found the most brilliant men and women, who are quite as desirous of meeting others of their kind as the most irrepressible young person who has just "come out."

To belittle the social circle and its influence because some of its members are silly, others stupid, and an occasional person bad, is as foolish as to decline to go to church because some ministers preach prosy sermons, some deacons drive hard bargains, and many theologians are quarreling with one another. Modern society—the community at large, requires that each human being shall be an "all-round" character, or approach as nearly as possible to that qualification, and the tendency of the social circle is to make such men and women. People of different ages meet more in society than ever before. Persons who protest that they are "too old to go into company" are rare, to what they were a quarter of a century ago. Parties exclusively for young people—or for old people, are becom-

ing fewer and fewer; between the increasing intelligence of youth and the improvement in the spirits and manners of maturity or that elastic period known as "middle age," young and old are becoming good company for each other, even at gatherings professionally fashionable, and the benefit is mutual. The man or woman who professes to be too old or too busy to go into society or who has "no patience with such nonsense" is behind the times and should make haste to "catch up." Society should be of pleasure and benefit to any one, young or old, rich or poor, wise or simple, grave or gay, but if it is not, then it should be regarded as a means of performing a duty.

Good society and plenty of it is not only an educating influence; it is refining in the truest sense of the word; it is the most available and successful means of culture. It is in society that we find most opportunities, outside of the family circle, of "rubbing off the rough corners" of our individuality. Persons whose sole society is at home have more noble opportunities for the cultivation of character than can be found anywhere else, but in every family that lives wholly in itself there is a constant tendency to intensify peculiarities of temperament. Many who in their own families are models of virtue, thoughtfulness, and unselfishness, appear angular and "cranky" to all persons besides. The tact, the ready wit, the quick sympathy, the adaptiveness that are necessary in successful dealing with our fellow beings in all matters affecting the general well-being of the community, are seldom developed except by frequent intercourse with others.

Such participation in society does not re-

quire "swallowtail" coats, train dresses, late hours, and fashionable frivolity. The "farmers' club" of a sparsely settled country, in which men, women, and children meet together in an apparently desultory chat is as truly society as a fashionable gathering in a large city;—nay, it is better, for it lacks the vain ambitions which have too large a part in the artificial society which makes much of appearance. Where opinions are formed and compared, about homely matters or great ones, is where characters are polished, no matter if a great deal of the talk is ungrammatical and inelegant. To provide society for one's family is next in importance to providing bread. Religious culture may be obtained even in utter solitude by any one who can read, think, and pray, but the closet is not a sufficient place for learning and practicing our duties to our fellow men. Some of the wisest students the world has known have seriously weakened their opportunities for usefulness by keeping themselves withdrawn from free communication with their fellow men. The late John Stuart Mill was a man whose mental powers will always be held in high esteem, but no man ever was less influential in the British Parliament than Mill proved himself when he sat in that body. The experiment of sending scholarly recluses to our own Congress and legislatures has always failed, not that these estimable men lacked wisdom, but that they lacked knowledge of their fellow men, and the adaptiveness which enables a man to put his thoughts to practical use.

Society includes all humanity, and only through association can any one become a working factor in it.

THE BOHEMIANS IN AMERICA.*

BY THOMAS CAPEK.

THE word "Bohemian" has three different meanings. It signifies a person, especially an artist or a literary man, who leads a free and often dissipated life, having little regard to what society he

frequents and despising conventionalities generally, or, as Mr. Froude puts it, "it means merely a class of persons who prefer adventure and speculation to settled industry and who do not work well in the harness of ordinary life"; secondly, it means a gypsy. Thirdly, it means the Bohemian people who form one great Slavic family with the Russians, Poles, Bulgarians, Croatians, Slovaks, Servians, Bosnians, Monte-Negrians, etc.

* This article belongs to a series on the various nationalities in the United States begun Volume VIII. of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Papers have already been published on the Irish, Germans, Scandinavians, Welsh, Scotch, Swiss, Italians, Jews, French, and Hollanders.

The Bohemian immigration to America may be divided into three distinct periods. The first period may be said to have begun with the Thirty Years' War. It will be remembered that Ferdinand II. of Austria issued a number of anti-protestant edicts after the disastrous defeat of the Protestant estates in the battle of White Mountain, near Prague, in 1620. These edicts commanded all the Protestants to leave the country or to return to the Catholic Church. As a consequence of this, thirty-six thousand families belonging mostly to the noble and higher classes, emigrated. Some took refuge in Saxony, Silesia, Poland, Hungary, and Germany; others fled to Sweden, Denmark, England, Holland, and thence to America. Our venerable historian Bancroft therefore truthfully remarks, speaking of the colonization of Maryland that "the country of Huss and of Jerome sent forth its sons, who at once were made citizens of Maryland with equal franchises." The most noted emigrant of this period is undoubtedly Augustine Herman, the founder and author of the celebrated Bohemia Manor in Cecil County, Maryland, now the property of the Bayard family. From Herman and his children some of our foremost families, like the Bayards and Randolphs, trace their lineage. The Phillipses, who in the seventeenth century founded the town of Yonkers, N. Y., were also said to be Bohemian emigrants of this period.

The second period of Bohemian emigration begins with the arrival of the "Moravians" at Savannah, Ga., in 1735, and at Bethlehem, Pa., in 1740. The Moravians came originally from Moravia, a margraviate of Bohemia; and as they are the direct descendants of the ancient "Bohemian Brethren," the followers of Jan Huss, the conclusion is a reasonable one that many Bohemians emigrated with them to America. The library of the Moravians at Bethlehem contains several old Bohemian books and manuscripts, some of which were brought to America one hundred and fifty years ago. The stranger visiting the quaint little cemetery of the Moravians at Bethlehem can to this day see weather-beaten marble slabs raised to the memory of some who were born in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia.

The third and the most important period of Bohemian emigration started in the memorable year of 1848. The revolutionary spirit of the French spreading like a contagion

everywhere, struck in its flight through Europe, from the banks of the Seine to the frozen Neva, the polyglot Austrian Empire. The Germans, the Bohemians, the Croatians, the Hungarians, the Slovaks, and the Poles, all suddenly rose up clamoring for constitutional rights. The sovereign, distracted and unable to suppress this general outburst of popular feeling, resigned in favor of his nephew, the present emperor, Francis Joseph. And when finally the rebellious Hungarians were subdued by the Russian weapons, and the turbulent Viennese democrats and students quieted, and peace and order introduced in the land, measures were taken to punish the insurgents. The Bohemians, though loyal to a fault in the late revolt, had to bear the brunt of the minister's displeasure now. The police, under the pretext of breaking up an imaginary panslavic organization, which, it was claimed, had a vast membership in Bohemia, arrested hundreds of innocent students, *litterati*, and artisans and spied and shadowed hundreds of others whose only crime probably was to shout at the barricade or to belong to some Bohemian national society. It must be borne in mind that the Bohemians in 1848, for the first time since their downfall in 1620, began to assert themselves politically and nationally. The government, apprehending a new danger to its centripetal and Germanizing tendencies, so carefully fostered since the time of Joseph II., did everything to crush the reviving nation. Hence the persecutions.

In these times so cruel and hostile to liberty and virtue, America greeted a little band of Bohemian emigrants, mostly students and artisans. They were young men who yearned after freedom and even tasted of it for a little while and wearying of the watchfulness of the police left the country of their birth. Others followed them in after years, partly for those same ideal reasons, partly for the purpose of bettering their material interests. And when the tocsin of the Civil War sounded, the different colonies were already strong enough to send scores of Bohemians to the battlefields. To-day it is estimated, fully four hundred and fifty thousand Bohemians and their direct descendants have permanent homes in America, earning their daily bread in shops, manufactories, stores, and on farms.

While most of the emigrants from Bohemia are poor, yet comparatively few of them are

laborers. They belong mostly to the agricultural, trading, and working classes driven from their homes by overpopulation, excessive taxation, bad years, and low wages. The southern part of Bohemia, especially the district of Tabor, where the soil is poor, sends the largest quota of emigration; on the other hand, the laborers and farmers of German nationality remain in the thickly-peopled districts of the north even under most unfavorable circumstances. The efforts of the government to check the stream of emigration by picturing America in the blackest hues in the official and semi-official newspapers, have hitherto proved unavailing. Those already settled here attract others of their countrymen, so that every successive year the emigration to America continues.

The largest Bohemian city colonies in the United States now are in New York, Baltimore, Cleveland, Chicago, Milwaukee, Detroit, St. Louis, Omaha, Cedar Rapids, Iowa City, St. Paul. The country or agricultural centers will be found in Wisconsin, counties of Racine, Milwaukee, Kewaunee, Manitowoc, Crawford, Grant; Iowa, counties of Johnson, Linn, Winneshiek; Minnesota, counties of Scott, Le Sueur, Jackson, Steele, McLeod, Renville; Nebraska, counties of Saline, Saunders, Colfax, Butler, Cuming, Knox, Howard; Kansas, counties of Republic, Sumner, Trego, Ellsworth, Washington, Rawlins; South Dakota, counties of Bon Homme, Yankton; North Dakota, counties of Walsh, Richland; Texas, counties of Fayette, Lavaca, Burleson. Of the city colonies, the one in St. Louis is the oldest, the Chicago colony the largest; of the agricultural settlements, those of Wisconsin are undoubtedly the oldest in the country, while Texas has more farmers than any other state in the Union. Outside of these colonies there are in almost every state a number of smaller ones too numerous to mention.

According to the census of 1880 there were but 85,361 Bohemians living in the United States. This is grossly underestimated, the mistake in figures being due to the fact that the Bohemians until recently were enumerated as "Austrians" or "Germans," both by the steamship agents and by the United States enumerators. For, while for example the census for 1874 gives 7,888 to the Austrians, it says nothing about the Bohemians of whom there were tens of thousands in the country already. In 1882 the tabulated re-

ports give the number of Bohemian immigrants as 6,602; in 1883, 5,462; in 1884, 8,239; in 1885, 6,352; in 1886, 4,314; in 1887, 4,579; in 1888, 4,127; total in seven years, 39,675. If we add to these figures one half or more of the census figures allowed to the Austrians since the beginning of the Bohemian immigration (very few of the Austrians proper, i. e., inhabitants of Lower and Upper Austria, of the Tyrol, etc., emigrate), we shall have something like the real figures of Bohemians living in America.

The occupations they are engaged in are various. While it is true that a number of them are cigarmakers in New York, tailors in Baltimore, paper and rolling mill hands in Cleveland, lumber and stock yard hands in Chicago, the majority of them will be found working in every imaginable industry, trade, and business,—setting diamonds at Tiffany's and working at the blazing furnace of the Omaha smelters, tilling the soil of the Western prairies or selling goods behind fashionable counters, dealing in cattle in the West, and working in the factories of the East. Thousands of them are prosperous merchants, business men, mechanics, bankers, and professional men. Those especially who some fifteen or twenty years ago settled in the great West, have no reason to regret having acted on the advice of Greeley.

One feature of the Bohemian immigration is surprising, though in the light of surrounding circumstances quite natural. I mean the changing of occupations. A carpenter, carefully apprenticed in Europe, becomes frequently a tailor in America, a shoemaker turns into a saloon keeper, and a college student versed in the choicest Tuscan and the tragedies of Sophocles may often be found hauling lumber in some lumber yard. The explanation of this is simple. It lies in the ignorance of our language. The immigrant's slender purse often giving out before he is engaged in his line of business, he is compelled to accept almost anything to keep the wolf away from the door. Coming to America with the intention of settling here permanently, the Bohemians invest all their savings in real estate. With the exception of New York, where the property is high, they own lots and houses in every city they live in. This is especially true of Chicago where they hold an enormous amount of real estate, some streets on the west side being solely settled by them. Chicago is also recognized

as the center of the Bohemian people, there being more newspapers, national societies, and schools there than in any other city. It is claimed that between 40,000 and 50,000 Bohemians have their homes in the Garden City.

It will be seen that people unacquainted in most cases with our language, customs, institutions, laws, and the fabric which makes up a nation generally, need an educator who will speak to them in a tongue they understand, will teach them the duties they owe the state, in short, will make desirable citizens of them in the future. This educational mission our newspapers must perform. And it is to be hoped that false patriotism will not insult our common sense to such an extent as to question the necessity, nay, absolute necessity of newspapers printed in foreign languages. We invite to our shores people of all countries and it would therefore be unjust for us to obstruct their only channels of information. Knowledge like sunbeams must spread everywhere regardless of means; the more of it the less of helots and of demagogues. I claim that newspapers printed in other languages than the English are useful, as long as they are necessary. When our nation shall have become one compact homogeneous mass they of consequence will be dispensed with, for their mission shall have been ended.

The Bohemian newspapers in the United States date back to the dark *ante bellum* times, the first journalistic effort coming from St. Louis, Mo. To-day some thirty Bohemian newspapers printed in different states of the Union give information on all the current topics of the day to about 45,000 or 50,000 readers. The oldest and generally considered the ablest paper is the *Slavie* of Racine, Wis., founded thirty years ago. It is edited by Charles Jonas, lieutenant governor-elect of Wisconsin. The *Pokrok-Zapadu* (Western Progress) of Omaha, Neb., was founded nineteen years ago by Mr. Edward Rosewater, the present proprietor of the *Omaha Bee*. Of the other leading papers I shall mention the St. Louis *Hlas* (the Voice), which is the organ of the Catholic people; the *Dennice Novoveku* (the Dawn) of Cleveland, O., the organ of the freethinkers; the *Pravda* (Truth) of Chicago, the organ of the Protestants; the *Domacnost* (Household) of Milwaukee, Wis.; the *Svoboda* (Liberty) of La Grange, Tex.; the *Slovan Americky*

(Slavonian-American) of Iowa City, Ia.; the *Nova Doba* (New Era) of Schuyler, Neb.; the *Svornost* (Concord), the *Duch Casu* (Spirit of the Times), the *Amerikan*, the *Amerika*, the *Chicagske Listy* (Chicago Gazette), the *Cecho-Slovan* (Bohemian-Slavonian) of Chicago, Ill.; the *New Yorske Listy* (New York Gazette), and the *Hlas Lidu* (Voice of the People) of New York City. As these newspapers are sometimes the only reading matter which finds its way to the hearth of the subscribers, they must naturally treat of a great variety of subjects to satisfy all classes of readers.

In connection with the newspapers a few words must be said of what may be called a native or home literature. It would, of course, be preposterous to think that the Bohemians or any other foreign nationality, severed as it is from the fatherland, could found an independent literature in America; yet, what has been done in this field deserves at least a notice. Let it be understood, however, that most of those seeking enjoyment in literary pursuits here have brought this taste with them from the old country.

The late Prof. Ladimir Klacel, who died some years ago at Belle Plaine, Ia., was unquestionably the most learned Bohemian in America. With the wisdom of a Seneca and the simplicity of a child this man, who but for adverse circumstances might have been a Hegel, came to America to starve. In Austria his genius was shackled by tyranny; in America he was incapacitated by extreme poverty. Starting a little newspaper he wrote for a select circle of admirers, who oftentimes were unable to follow him through the intricate woods of brier and thistles of his metaphysics. Klacel is buried in the sunny cemetery of Belle Plaine, a modest pyramid marking his grave. His metaphysical writings are numerous. Mr. Chas. Jonas of Wisconsin is another Bohemian author in America whose books, unlike those of Klacel's, are of practical use. Mr. Jonas was also the first one to compile an English-Bohemian dictionary. Mr. F. B. Zdrubek, the managing editor of the Chicago *Svornost*, wrote some useful things; Mr. Joseph Cermak of the same paper is compiling histories of the United States; A. V. Young, V. Snyder, J. V. Capek, B. Bittner, and F. K. Ringsmuth composed some commendable verses; the novelistic field is cultivated by Paul Albieri and J. R. Jicinsky of the *Svornost*,

and Gustave Reisl; the social questions have found exponents in L. J. Palda and B. F. Pecka. Two or three firms also publish yearly almanacs where the local literary talent disports itself.

While the newspapers wield a potent influence over the people, it cannot be denied that the various societies unite them close together; and I venture to say that no other nationality in the United States averages so many useful and useless societies as the Bohemian. Chicago alone has over one hundred of them. They are of every possible kind,—benevolent, religious, educational, dramatic, singing, athletic, and entertaining. Of the benevolent the most powerful is the secret order known as the C. S. P. S. It was founded in the fifties and has at present 167 sub-lodges with a total membership of 9,000. With this society is affiliated a branch for women known as the J. C. D., with 42 sub-lodges and a membership of 2,300. The C. S. P. S. organization is composed mainly of free-thinkers, though the by-laws admit to membership any Bohemian, irrespective of religion. The Catholics have similar organizations, the oldest and the most powerful being the First Central Catholic Unity, with 178 sub-lodges and 10,000 members. The death benefit of each is \$1,000. Of the other organizations the gymnastic or turning society, *Sokol* (the Falcon), with numerous branches throughout the country and a membership of several thousand is deserving of some notice. It has been recognized long ago by our leading men that physical culture is a necessity; and these societies perform their duty admirably. In order to carry out the plan more systematically the *Sokol* publishes a newspaper, the *Sokol Americky* (American Falcon), devoted exclusively to calisthenics and physical culture. In larger cities like New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Omaha, etc., large classes of boys and girls are being trained and instructed by experienced teachers of calisthenics. Most of the societies own halls, erected in some cases at great expense. It may safely be claimed that the organization of the *Sokol* is as perfect and its work as useful as that of the German *Turners*. The fondness of the Bohemians for the Thalian art gave rise to a vast number of amateur dramatic societies. Every colony in the country, no matter how small, has at least one of them.

So much about newspapers, literature, and

societies. In conclusion let us compare, as far as practicable, some of the striking peculiarities of the Bohemian emigration, with that of other nationalities. In the first place the Bohemian immigrant comes to America to stay. He brings his family with him, and being naturally of a conservative turn of mind, he seeks a permanent habitation either in a city or on a farm. He may be said to have the patriotism of an Irishman, with whose history that of his own country bears a close resemblance, and the love of liberty of a German, whose manners and habits are almost identical with his. In founding his future home he prefers places settled by his countrymen, thereby forming colonies. This is only natural, and we see it with the Germans in Wisconsin and Pennsylvania, and the Swedes in Minnesota. In these colonies he builds schools, for he feels it to be his duty to perpetuate the tongue of his forefathers; he erects places of worship where the native priest speaks to him; he chats at the neighbor's hearth about the country of his birth. In the course of years the vivid picture of his transatlantic home fades from memory; his ideas undergo a gradual change; his prejudices vanish; he is drawn closer as if by a magnetic force to the American people. His children, though they may speak his language, are Americans at heart. He clings, it is true, to the language, the traditions, and the customs of the fatherland, and as Prof. Thomas remarked in his article on the Germans in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for November, 1887, "It is entirely proper, for Americans are sometimes unreasonable in their demand that the European who becomes an American citizen, should break at once and radically with all that he has been attached to in the past."

The Bohemian-American is not a devout believer, which is quite a phenomenon since he was brought up almost without an exception in the Catholic Church. Bohemia, it will be remembered, was a Protestant country till the beginning of the Thirty Years' War. The rebellious Protestant estates being defeated and the leaders either executed or exiled, Ferdinand II. began strenuously to catholicize the country. He was so successful in this work that on the day of the issuance of the Toleration Patent in 1781, granting religious liberty to all the subjects of the empire, but 100,000 Protestants appear to have survived the persecution in Bohemia.

And it so happening that with the inauguration of Ferdinand's antireformation the Bohemian nationality began to be proscribed, the language gradually expelled from the schools and substituted by the German, the administration overrun with strangers,—while before the antireformation the national literature and art flourished, the Bohemian language was used throughout the land, and native officers served the government, the Bohemians of to-day even though Catholics cannot but on comparing the two periods admire the first. Possibly one-half of those who come to America separate here from the Catholic Church, becoming indifferentists or absolute atheists of the Voltaire pattern. Some, especially of late, have joined the Protestant Church. This religious apathy some attribute to the writings of Prof. Klacel, others to readings in history and to the influence of the newspapers hostile to the Catholic Church. The strongholds of the Catholics seem to be in St. Louis and Chicago, but they have costly churches and schools in almost every large settlement in the United States. The Protestants also have numerous places of

worship, the larger parishes being those at Chicago, Cleveland, and New York.

Some readers of our daily papers are under the impression that the Bohemians belong to that turbulent class of people who lean toward anarchism and socialism. This is untrue, and all the marked characteristics of the people—a natural shyness, bordering often on timidity, a spirit of conservatism, an exemplary thriftiness and patriotism—bear out the untruth of such newspaper reports. The few Bohemian anarchists in the United States can in no way be identified with the body of the people, since they have nothing in common with them but the place of birth. In all other respects they are Germans. By this I mean to say that most of them are Germanized Bohemians.

The opinion seems to be general that the Bohemians settled in the Western States are more prosperous than their brethren in the East. Having grown up with a young country they are to-day successful business men and farmers. In Wisconsin, Nebraska, and Iowa they have even acquired considerable political influence.

BIRMINGHAM, A WELL-GOVERNED REPUBLIC.

BY MAX LECLERC.

Translated for "The Chautauquan" from "Revue Des Deux Mondes."

IN going from Oxford to Birmingham I crossed the Midland Counties of England, which are entirely agricultural. Under a fleecy sky stretched away the beautiful green English meadows. Cattle of fine breeds were pasturing in them, half hidden by the thick grass and the buttercups. Every now and then a little brick cottage, with its roof of red tile, rose up from the midst of the surrounding green.

In the distance, as I traveled, there was what seemed at first a cloud of mist low down in one part of the horizon; a great dark stain, adhering to the earth, and which one might fancy to be the immense chimney for some great subterranean fire. It marked the site of Birmingham. In the midst of this admirable country, this tranquil haunt of nature, there rose thus suddenly this industrial center with its full cortège of necessary annoyances. As we approached, innumerable chimneys, like great black arms, brandish-

ing smoking torches toward the sky, veiled the light of day, and half concealed all things in a fog of uncertain color. Files, battalions, a whole army of little houses of two stories, all alike, all uniformly ugly and black, seemed to climb and descend the hills; and nothing broke the monotony of this army without a chief. It stood there as the great industrial city with all of its horrors.

Words fail to express the unsightliness of those streets, the artificial look of the whole assemblage of houses, the carelessness of the arrangement, as viewed by one approaching.

But this that we have seen thus far is not all of Birmingham, it is only the surface, the envelope. Let us look closer. Some redeeming features begin to appear. Here at the side of the fine large Town Hall, henceforth historic as the place where John Bright made his most memorable addresses, rises the Council House, a structure worthy of any

great city; then other noticeable buildings of the neo-Gothic and Norman styles are discerned through the thick atmosphere; and we see long streets bordered with high, solid edifices, some of them even elegantly built. One especially noticeable is the Palace of Justice, a model of modern architecture, original and practical.

Birmingham, noted for its manufacture of almost every description of iron and steel goods, is situated at the extreme frontier of the region of iron and coal. Up to 1838 it had not, properly speaking, any municipal administration. Some committees, bearing puzzling names and composed of irresponsible members who were elected within the associations, had charge of the municipality. Affairs were badly administered by these honorable magistrates, who looked upon their positions as lucrative sinecures, and who had not the slightest thought or care for the general interest. The city was in a lamentable state. Its very center was occupied by an infectious and miserable quarter, composed of sordid huts crowded about narrow, unpaved streets where all sorts of uncleanness accumulated and stagnated. Under such conditions epidemics succeeded epidemics.

The city received in 1832, by the reform act, the right to send two deputies to Parliament. A sort of public opinion was not slow in forming and then in manifesting itself in vigorous protestations during eight years, against the corruption and carelessness of the so-called rulers. In 1838, after a truly Homeric struggle between the committees, little disposed to quit their places, and the citizens, bent on initiating self-government, a charter of incorporation was granted. On December 26, 1838, Birmingham elected its first municipal council, and a few days afterward it had its first mayor. The down-fallen committees did not look upon themselves as permanently defeated; in all meetings, through the press, and finally in Parliament and the tribunals, they attacked the validity of the charter. They disputed the case step by step. In 1848 Parliament pronounced against them, but they were not definitively beaten so that they ceased from troubling until 1851.

Birmingham gained with difficulty its communal franchise; it was natural that it should have to struggle for it; it was less natural but exceedingly fortunate that it should have learned during the long struggle

to make good use of a liberty so hardly earned. By the successive laws which were passed, the municipality established its rights, increased its power, extended its privileges, until to-day it is a veritable little state which governs itself in full independence.

The local government is in the hands of five distinct authorities: 1. the judges of the peace who exercise within the city limits the ordinary duties of justices of the peace; 2. the town council, the most powerful of all the bodies; 3. the sewerage committee—composed of twenty-two members, among whom the mayor is included, eleven members being elected by the municipal council and the rest by the local committees of the different parishes—having in charge the whole surface of the land occupied by the localities represented, and being invested with the right of expending money to the sum of \$200,000 (all the water is collected and filtered at the farm of Saltley); 4. the board of guardians, composed of members elected by those who pay taxes to the sum of £12, and charged with the application of the poor laws of the city; 5. the school board, composed of fifteen members, elected by those paying the rent of a house, and having the charge of all the primary schools of the city.

The municipal council is composed of sixteen aldermen and of forty-eight councilors—three for each district. The latter are elected for three years, by all those who pay house rent—and women are included in this provision. One-third of the council is renewed each year. The aldermen are elected for six years by the municipal council, either from the members of the council or from the citizens. The mayor, elected by the council, is not necessarily a councilor. It is interesting to look over the list of mayors; all have been distinguished administrators. Among them I marked the beloved name of Sir Thomas Martineau, the nephew of Harriet Martineau, who was re-elected three times, and whose father before him held the same office.

The municipal council represents very accurately all interests and all social classes. It comprises seventeen industrial leaders, seven shop-keepers, a certain number of great merchants and distinguished members of the liberal professions, doctors, lawyers, etc., property owners, and four workmen. As to political distinctions the council is now divided as follows: twenty-five liberal unionists, twenty-four liberal Gladstonians, two

liberal independents, eleven conservatives, two conservative independents. Politics plays a great rôle in all elections; unionists and Gladstonians do not fail then to introduce the question of Ireland. But the election time over, and the council gathered for work, politics passes to the background, and everybody settles down to do his best in the affairs of the city.

Another instance of practical wisdom on the part of the council is, that it holds only twelve full sittings during the year, never in any case more than sixteen; thus there is little chance for idle discussion. All the work is done in the different committees. The council gives final decision in affairs of importance. It also notes the local contributions and controls the employment of funds. The committees are generally composed of eight members, and the mayor is an official member of them all. The most important of the committees are those on finance, on water, on gas.

In 1838, the first year of the municipal life of the city, it contained 170,000 inhabitants. To-day it numbers about 450,000. The right of suffrage was limited then to 7,300 persons; now it belongs to 63,718 citizens. The number of municipal electors increased during the same time from 5,023 to 74,167.

From 1851 to 1873 grand progress had been made in all branches of the government, but the election of Mr. Chamberlain to the highest position was a signal for a yet more vigorous effort. The city was, from one end to the other, an irregular mass of buildings without character, a confusion of narrow streets. The new mayor conceived the plan of taking possession of the great group of unhealthy and miserable huts which disfigured the central part of the city, of clearing them all out, and of laying out there wide streets. This was done, and Corporation Street, which now runs directly through the center of this old chaos, would do honor to any capital. More yet was done. Mr. Chamberlain dreamed of furnishing to his citizens, in the best possible manner, two things of the utmost importance, water and light. He obtained from Parliament an act which authorized the abolishment of the old gas and water companies. The commune became the head of these industries, and the results were surprising. Gas which cost three shillings per thousand cubic feet in 1875 now sells for two shillings, and yet the net

annual gain rose from £25,339 to £70,337. Regarding the water statistics, the figures are not less eloquent. Thanks to this system, which consists in applying as exactly as possible to every industry the principles of municipal enterprises, the city of Birmingham has been transformed in twenty years, has been dotted with beautiful buildings, large libraries, excellent schools, public baths, and a complete sewer system, without incurring a debt of over \$15,000,000, and this debt is largely met by the large public lands of the city.

A good idea of the great advantage gained for all the population by these recent measures may be had by running the eye over the following figures: In Birmingham where the density of the population is 54.1 persons to the acre—which rate is surpassed only by Liverpool (116.4), London (58.3), Glasgow (86.4), Manchester (63.9)—the rate of mortality is 19.9 out of every 1,000. At Liverpool the rate is 23.7, at Manchester 29.8, etc. In 1873, before the undertaking of these health measures the rate of mortality in Birmingham was 24.8, nearly 25 out of every 1,000. It has been calculated that if the average rate of mortality which prevailed during the decade opening in 1870 had continued during the following decade, 19,200 persons who were living in 1890, would have died during the preceding ten years. And adopting the views of Dr. Farr, who estimates human life at an average of £159 sterling for each individual, the capital saved to the city is not less than £3,052,800.

So much for the material progress accomplished; let us now pass to consider the moral progress. Public spirit at Birmingham is excellent. We shall see that this democracy knows how to distinguish the best things, the most useful, and the most capable, and that it puts them at the head and maintains them there. The distinctions between classes are less apparent here than anywhere else in all England. There reigns a much greater social solidarity; the great manufacturers associate with the small shopkeepers; the members of the liberal professions with the commercial men; and the workman who rises to the rank of an artisan is sure, if he is well gifted and well disposed, and if no untoward chance befalls him, of becoming one day a patron. On the other hand a long and universal practice in self-government in the midst of a great commu-

nity of complex and elevated interests, has rendered the citizens most intelligent in affairs of both city and state.

Birmingham possesses a complete and very democratic organization of teaching. It is perhaps the only city in England where this phenomenon can be so well observed. Thanks to a very comprehensive and liberal system of scholarships, the capable and deserving pupil is taken from the primary school to one of higher grade where he can prolong the time of instruction to his fifteenth or sixteenth year; at the end of that time if he wishes, still aided by a scholarship, he can enter a school of fine arts, or Mason College, an institution of superior general and technical instruction. The interior accommodation of these schools is perfect; the body of teachers numerous, capable, and full of ardor. The character of the instruction imparted considerably surpasses the ordinary level.

Thanks to the endowment of King Edward VI., high schools are richly provided for in Birmingham. In 1552 this king established a revenue from lands, which in the year 1881 amounted to £21,983; it has been calculated that at the end of this century the revenue would reach £50,000. These sums have been used in establishing several schools of high grade which respond to the wants of the population. All have within their reach and power, according to their aim and aptitude, different means of continuing and completing their education. There is, first, Mason College, an institution due to private initiation, where general or technical instruction is given as required; second, the Birmingham and Midland Institute, which is still more popular; and third, the school of fine arts, formerly a private enterprise, now become a municipal institution, which has nearly two thousand students, and which renders to the local industries in the domain of art the same services which the Midland Institute renders them in the scientific domain.

It would be impossible to enumerate in this article all the scientific, benevolent, and other worthy institutions which are to be found here. I will content myself with adding a few words about the free public libraries. There are several of them which are distributed in various parts of the city. I entered one day at noon time the principal one, which is opposite the town house. It

is a great palace, well lighted, and well ventilated. On the first floor there is an immense room for periodicals. I saw there all the leading papers of London and of this whole country, literary reviews, special publications, and magazines by the dozens. There were several hundreds of readers, workmen in working clothes, humble citizens, all classes, all very earnest, losing not a moment or a line. At the end of the hall a catalogue of the books is kept, each book being represented by a number. In the space devoted to books of science and history, nine-tenths of the volumes are marked "Out." The popular demand is so great for these institutions that at the municipal elections the voters of those quarters not provided with a library always ask the candidates for office the following question: "Will you work for the establishment of a free library and reading-room in the district?" This is the more remarkable as it means always an increase of taxes.

The public spirit of the city is measured by the interest taken by all classes in its public institutions such as hospitals, schools, and museums. The hospitals are numerous; they contain many inmates; the work connected with them is immense. They are sustained by voluntary contributions. Thus the general hospital had in 1885 a revenue of £15,000, more than one-third of which was raised by annual subscriptions; 3,545 sick persons were cared for, and 38,501 received medicine and advice. The Queen's Hospital in the same year received £2,648 in the form of subscriptions, £256 in donations, and £1,621 from legacies; it cared for 1,944 sick, and gave 24,063 consultations. It was in Birmingham thirty years ago that a newspaper advanced the idea of taking up a collection in the churches for hospitals. The idea was acted upon by the rector of Birmingham, and during the years from 1859 to 1885 there was raised in this way the sum of £124,433. The idea was found so fruitful that it has been put in practice throughout England. In addition to this, in 1873 a certain Saturday was set apart in which to raise collections for the hospitals, and in the succeeding fourteen years there was realized from this source the sum of £63,250, the larger part of it coming from the purses of the laboring men.

There is not in Birmingham a public institution which has not been the recipient of

some magnificent gift. The Gallery of Fine Arts, to-day one of the richest in the kingdom, received in 1871 a gift of £3,000; in 1880 Messrs. Tangye, great manufacturers, presented it with £5,000, and later doubled the gift—at which time the public raised by subscription £7,000. The Municipal School of Fine Arts, located ten years ago in a poor hall, flourishes to-day in a beautiful palace. Three generous donors in 1881 furnished £20,000 for the school besides making it a gift of lands valued at £14,000. Among the many private persons who have made princely gifts for the benefit of the city, Miss Ryland, a rich heiress of one of the oldest Birmingham families, is conspicuous. In 1873 she gave fifty-seven acres of land to be laid out in a beautiful park, and in 1879 donated for the same purpose, in another part of the city, forty-one acres more.

It seems to me now that I have said enough to justify my title. Birmingham is truly a little republic in the midst of a monarchy, and a republic well governed. Municipal life there has free course; liberty has apparently no restrictions. The commune is all-powerful; and it asserts its power, but does not abuse it. There are the fewest possible visible representatives of the central power. It seems strange in a city of 500,000 inhabitants to meet with no administration bureaux, no magistrates, no permanent tribunals. The people govern themselves; they bring up and instruct their children in their own way; care for such of their sick as require care; and construct their streets as it suits their own taste. I affirm that they are excellent republicans; the name only is lacking, but they have the substance, and that suffices them; they are wise.

LIFE'S PALIMPSEST.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

LOVE chose a face clear-lighted by the soul,
And wrote on cheek and brow her thought divine:
"The stars shall vanish from the heaven's wide scroll,
Time's story ends—Eternity is mine!"

Life came, and, at her bidding, pain and care
Blurred the fair page, its rosy hues effaced;
Hiding the tender story written there,
With heavy lines, by ruthless fingers traced.

Death came, and breathed upon each crossing line,
Till, sunk in frost, it paled and vanished slow:
And lo! once more, Love's prophecy divine,
From the scarred brow, shone forth with heavenly glow.

And when men looked upon the coffined face
They said, "He lies as in a dream of bliss;
Such calm he wore in manhood's early grace,
So smiled his lips when youth and hope were his."

Under the down-dropped lids there strangely crept
Serenest light than falls from star or sun;
And a low whisper through the silence swept,
"Time's story ends, when Love's is but begun!"



BY ANDREW TEN BROEK.

THE reader is invited to make with me a visit to the rude Gothic ancestry of many of our countrymen, in a notice of the contents of the epic known as the *Nibelungen-Lied* [nē'bē-loong-en leet]. The admirers of Homer's *Iliad* and its Latin imitation may some of them deem a comparison of any other poem with these an insult to Christendom, which owes its education so largely to Greek and Latin works, of which the *Iliad* and *Æneid* are acknowledged masterpieces; but August Wilhelm von Schlegel has compared the *Iliad* with the national epic of his own ancestral people, concluding rather in favor of the German work. I shall treat of this poem a little more in detail than he has done.

The question as to the so-called Homeric poems being the work of one mind has been much debated. In my school days I deemed it treason to our commonwealth of culture to deny a oneness of authorship to these productions, and felt as indignant at the denial as if Homer had been my personal friend. Now, however, with no new reason except the subjective conviction that it never lay in human nature to open the drama of the world's literature with a beauty and dignity which have seldom been attained to during nearly three thousand progressive years, I deem the claim of such verity a sublime absurdity. I could as well believe the fable that Minerva sprang full-armed from the cleft head of F-Oct.

Jupiter. It makes Homer not only without peers, but without analogies. It places in the very morning twilight of literature a poem which the claimants themselves generally regard as remaining still unequalled. My views of evolution forbid me to believe that the first product in the direct line of our literary descent is at an elevation which nearly a hundred successive generations have been vainly striving to regain.

Great rivers are formed from the union of smaller streams; these in turn are made up of brooks, themselves fed by rills, each traceable to some spring in shaded mountain or valley. The traveler chances to stand upon the banks of a noble river, deep, broad, and clear. Its surface reflects with great distinctness a sky of purer azure, fleecy clouds of more beautiful whiteness than those of other known lands, while on its banks are cities and villages such as he could not have hoped to see, peopled by a race of nobler aspect and mien than any he has met, as if belonging to a higher than his own order. He attempts to trace the river to its sources, but meets only with marshes and swamps, flanked by inaccessible mountains. He fails in like manner to find the historic antecedents of the people. Does he conclude at once that the river has no sources and tributaries, the cultured people no progressive historic antecedents? Modern exploration has found the sources and tributaries of the Nile; they



Siegfried's triumphant entry into Worms.

may never find those of the Homeric poems. The sources have been sealed up; the channels of confluents have been filled with the sands of the desert.

As to unity of authorship the *Iliad* and *Nibelungen-Lied* must stand on the same ground. Few have studied the Homeric poems more thoroughly than Mr. Grote, and he inclines to doubt whether such a man as Homer ever lived. We must suppose a man or succession of men—none will object to one of them being called Homer—of greater genius than their poetic antecedents, who seized long-existing materials and

molded them into shape. Grote's special theory is perhaps too artificial. He supposes that many persons may have united their labors, agreeing upon the part each should bear in the work. This is a little too unlike

the way in which early literary enterprise has proceeded. Then the concurrence of two, much more of a larger number of men of the requisite endowments, seems improbable. Emerson says: "Every novel is indebted to Homer"; but he says nothing of Homer's indebtedness. This lay beyond the scope of modern inquiry. The creditors' claims are outlawed. No



Siegfried and Kriemhild.

testimony survives. But Homer, if there ever was such a man, was indebted to a line of Ionic bards whose works and names have perished, and is now perhaps still more in the debt of some who lived long after him.

The *Iliad* has come down to us with the name of an author to whom tradition has assigned quite too many birthplaces. A number of cities contended for the honor of having been the scene of his advent. As to his blindness all seem to agree, but more attributes have been given him than can well be used in making up a single person. Taking for granted this supposed man's sole authorship of the Homeric poems, admiration for him has become intense, a kind of personal friendship, which foils any effort to distribute the glory of the work. The argument for the unity might be condensed into a beautiful specimen of reasoning in a circle. The poems prove that Homer was a wonderful man and thus no proof is needed that so wonderful a man could have produced them. Here is indicated my logic; but I am in my practice somewhat like those transatlantic philosophers who are still devout in the church after they have destroyed in theory the foundations of their religious faith; I renounce my faith in Homer, but fail to dislodge him from his position in my heart. We do feel the need of a name for the authorship of these poems; let that of Homer supply this demand.

The *Nibelungen-Lied* comes to us without the name of an author. There is no blindness or other misfortune to excite our commiseration. No rocky isle is associated with the poet's birth. There is no name to serve as a nucleus around which may be clustered such emotions as for more than twenty-five centuries have been awakened by the name of Homer. Instead of having been conveyed to our age in the tongue endeared to us as the bearer of our holy religion and other choice elements of our civilization, it has addressed us in the rough gutturals of the Gothic North. Nor were its tones softened by being wafted over the Mediterranean, the highway of the nations, and its vine and olive coast lands. Its elemental traditions had been taking form in Scandinavia and on the Rhine and Danube, some, perhaps, having originated in Northern Asia.

The materials of this epic have been derived from at least three, perhaps from five, distinct periods: 1. The story of Siegfried



Marriage of Siegfried and Kriemhild.

and Brunhild is said to belong in its rudiments to a time when the Greeks and Indians had not yet branched off into independent nations, but lived together on the high tablelands of Asia. The story is, therefore, found with variations in all the branches of the Caucasian race. 2. Another part belongs to the time of Attila, king of the Huns. 3. Another part of the material relates to Theodorich, king of the Ostrogoths. Some make the stories of Attila, Günther, and Hagen each to belong to a different period; but we find as a contemporary of Attila, a historic Günther who fell in a contest with the latter at Basle, Switzerland. There are portions, not traceable, doubtless belonging to other periods, both earlier and later.

The Wrath of Achilles is at the opening of the *Iliad* announced as its subject, though the word *Iliad* itself better states the contents of the poem. The achievements of Siegfried form the chief material of the *Nibelungen*

story. The reader of the Iliad at the opening of the poem meets Achilles, who, however, retires in sullen anger to his fleet and there lies at his ease, except as he may be supposed to appear occasionally, view with either scornful or complacent indifference the rage of the doubtful conflict, and inquire sarcastically how the Greeks are getting on without him, until, after a ten years' siege the poet introduces him again to close the drama of the war. The long story consists mostly of accounts of single combats which occurred after the re-appearance of Achilles, and have, from the nature of the case, too great a sameness to consist with a well sustained interest in the long narrative. There are passages in the Iliad which have rarely if ever been excelled for pathos, combined with picturesque and linguistic beauties. The last interview of Hector and Andromache is but one instance eminent among many of its kind. As to language and imagery their elevation is sustained throughout the poem. The Odyssey has the same excellences, and it were enough to say of this latter that its narrative has been made the basis of the best didactic story ever written for the guidance of those born to rule—Fenelon's "Voyage of Télémaque." Perhaps the highest commendation which can be pronounced upon the Homeric books is that the common people of our day can apprehend their meaning, when well rendered into their language, "about as well as can the learned. But the incidents have such sameness that they might be indefinitely multiplied or diminished without affecting the unity of the work. This cannot be said of the Paradise Lost, integrity of which would be broken, much as would the human body, by the loss or addition of a member.

The Nibelungen-Lied, though made up of fragments gathered from the four winds, has unity. Siegfried, its hero, is not the first person introduced to the reader, but soon appears and occupies the chief place until about the middle of the poem, at which point he disappears. The prolongation of the story thus after the fall of its hero would be a blemish were it not recom-

pensated by Kriemhild's persevering endeavor to avenge her husband's death.

The European nations, when they received Christianity, began to look to Rome for their literature, as Rome had looked to Greece. But this poem, though compiled long after the Teutonic nations had generally accepted the new religion, is Gothic. Its last compilers drew from pagan sources, Teutonic, Scandinavian, and Slavonic. The stories are of pagan origin. Some of the persons introduced were pagans, of which Attila, king of the Huns, is an instance. That which was purely pagan was of course rejected. Woden, Thor, Freya, and Walhalla drop out, but relics of the spirit of Germanic paganism abide in the poem. It



Brunhild and Kriemhild disputing their rank.

is written in Old High German, and varies from the German language of to-day scarcely more than the English of Chaucer and Wyclif does from our current English. In the days when Tacitus wrote his little tract on the Germans, the lands on the Rhine were thought to be too cold to produce the grape; now grapes grown there are deemed by epicures more delicious than the Italian product. So, too, literary epicures are beginning to find an exquisite pleasure in treasures for ages stored in the cells of learning on the Rhine and the Danube. They prove to be a pleasant variation of the products formerly expected only from the lands of the Greeks and the Romans.



Kriemhild imploring Hagan to protect Siegfried.

In the twelfth century began the literary revolution which gave us this poem in its present shape. At this time the minnesingers, some of them men of noble birth, rode or wandered on foot over Germany, arranging and rearranging according to a varying fancy their materials of song, of which those used in this poem formed a part. The work was compiled early in the thirteenth century and during the minnesinging epoch. The poet who at this time gathered and put together this material was familiar with the court poetry then in vogue, especially as in Austria. The form he gives his poem is that of a stanza of four verses, each divided by a *cæsura*, the first half having three feet, with the last one full, or four, with the last short; the other half has three feet. The fourth verse in each stanza has an additional foot. The plan is simple. That monotonous uniformity which runs through the Homeric epics is broken in this poem by the division into stanzas, and the effect is aided by the closing of each with a longer line. If the Greek recital has a smoother flow and is more delicately ornate than the German, the latter makes up for this in a certain rugged boldness. As the one breathes the soft air of the lands on the *Ægean* and *Levant*, the other snorts that of the coasts of the North Sea and the Baltic. Indeed it will do much to disentangle the snarl and clear away the mists of the reader's mind, if he shall conceive the myth, fable, and legend which have prevailed over the vast stretch of lands from India to Scandinavia, including Greek, Roman, Teutonic, Celtic, and Slavonic, as one

in origin and kind, varied by climate, occupation, and environment, together with what for want of a better term may be called the great accidents of humanity. The Vedas of India and the Sagas of Scandinavia, together with the myths of the peoples of all the intervening lands, form a strict unity in an infinity of diversity.

There are twenty-eight manuscripts, either entire or fragmentary, of the Lay of the Nibelungen. These were found scattered from the North Sea in the west to Hungary in the east and from the Baltic in the north to the Alps in the south. Two attempts were made with the aid of these early in the thirteenth century to improve the poem. For this purpose were used chiefly the most perfect manuscripts, two in number, found at Hohen-Ems, a village near the Rhine in the Alps above Lake Constance. Of these MSS. one was transferred to the library of St. Gall, the other to the Royal Library at Munich. But the court poetry decayed as suddenly as it had bloomed. The poetic spirit of the minnesingers was wanting and little could be done.

Translations have been made of this poem into the languages of modern Europe. Of those in the German, Simrock's is of first rank. The English translation by Birch ranks high. My quotations are from the latter.

As to the story itself, Siegfried is its hero, Kriemhild the princess of his chivalrous pursuit. This maiden, sister of the three kings at Worms on the Rhine, has a dream which she relates to Utie, her mother. She dreams of having a falcon which she had fondled for



Siegfried's Departure for the Chase.



Hagen's Treachery.

many days, when two eagles seized it from her in their claws. The mother makes the falcon of the dream a noble husband. The seizure by the eagles shows, indeed, that the husband is to be slain, unless, as Utie piously suggests, God shall interpose a special providence to save him.

Thus runs the story as recited by the poet :

Kriemhilda, innocent as fair—dreamed as night
whiled away,
That she a noble falcon mewed for many an
anxious day ;
But, soaring, it was fiercely clutched by wrath-
ful eagles twain :
That she, entranced, must see it torn did cause
her heartfelt pain.

Awake—she to her mother went and told her
frightful dream ;
To solve it thus and then and there—it Utie did
beseem :
“ The falcon thou didst foster so, a noble knight
may be !
Heaven guard his life ! or ere long time he'll
die by treachery.”—*Legend I. ; 1-2.*

Siegfried now appears in the story though in the distant Netherlands and long yet not to be seen by Kriemhild. He is the son of Sigmund and Siegelind, a royal pair at

Xanthen, on the Lower Rhine. He has developed the noblest manhood of body, mind, and heart. He is to receive the honors of knighthood, and as a part of the ceremony his father institutes a great tournament. Four hundred youths of Siegfried's age are to receive knightly honors with him. The account of the preparation and action brings to light many a curious custom. The great cavalcade must proceed ceremoniously to a cloister, where mass must be celebrated, the knightly precepts given to the candidates, and their dedication be consummated in somewhat different style than that of the days of the Knight of Salamanca. The old knights, that they might share the amusement of the occasion, attend these youths as squires. The story places before us a series of scenes compared with which the Grecian games were barbarous.

Siegfried has heard the fame of Kriemhild's beauty and virtues, and has been greatly charmed thereby, but his father, knowing the character of her brother's court at Worms, fears an alliance with it, uses dissuasions, and proposes another match. The following hints the issue :—

At length thus spake Sir Siegfried—“ O father !
dear to me ;
Unleagued to any noble dame I'll now and ever
be,

If in my courtship I'm restrained from wooing her I love."

He so resolved and kept his word : to warp him many strove.—*Legend 1, 14.*

The palace at Xanthen is astir, of which curious details of sewing and embroidery are given. Tears mingle with the toils of servants as well as in the court circle and in the scenes of the final parting.

Siegfried leaves home with twelve men ; he arrives at Worms with seven hundred knights and all necessary attendants, and sumpter horses for such a train. The sequel will show whence this array was obtained ; for this is the key to the whole story. The arrival of this cavalcade without announcement, spreads astonishment in the Burgundian palace at Worms. Its windows are filled

the Nibelungen, from which account we learn that he had found the people embroiled in a strife about the division of their vast treasure and that the matter had been referred to him for adjudication. We find further that a party dissatisfied with his judgment had attacked him, that he had slain their two chiefs, Schilburg and Nibelung, and had become lord of the people and their hoard. Thus is explained the increase of the company of twelve, with which he had left the parental home, to a band of seven hundred knights and their squires.

Hagen, from fear of Siegfried's enmity and hope of sharing his treasure, advises to receive the party as guests. Brilliant scenes of court life follow in which tournaments prevail. These supply occasions for the display



Kriemhild Discovers Siegfried's Murderer.

with those whom mingled curiosity and apprehension draw there. The king calls Hagen, one of his courtiers, as the man most likely to identify the newly arrived. Taking his view from a window, he declares that the strange knights must be Siegfried and his train and then relates what he had heard of the young knight's adventures in the land of

of Siegfried's matchless strength and skill in arms, as well as of his beauty, grace, and wealth. Kriemhild remains as yet, however, personally unknown to him and is but a spectator of the fêtes in which he appears. But scenes are in preparation which shall bring them together. Leudiger and Leudegast—the former a Saxon the latter a Danish prince—

send insolent demands to Günther, to which, but for Siegfried's presence, he must have either yielded or fought against hope; but this enabled him to return a defiant answer. A bloody field follows, and as tidings of victory reach Worms, Kriemhild's sympathy in the general joy leads her to admit one of the messengers to her presence. She learns that among those who have done good service, Siegfried's preëminence is unquestioned. This prepares the way for an interview, which takes place on the triumphant return of Günther's forces. The splendor and prowess of the young knight, as already seen in the tournaments, had, unconsciously to herself, shaken a little her purpose to lead a single life. Now they meet. A court pageant follows in which more than a hundred ladies appear. The meeting is thus described:

He bowed with gentle courtesy and thanked with bashful pride:
Conjoint embarrassment was felt, which each desired to hide;
Yet tender glances passed between the maiden and the knight,
But such took place quite stealthily, as though they did not right.—*Legend III., 157.*

The happy pair excite both admiration and envy, while in the mind of Günther is germinating a scheme of adventure in which he perceives that Siegfried's aid will be needed. In the frozen North is a queen heroine, Brunhild by name. Every prince who appears before her as a suitor is promised her hand when he shall first have conquered her at tilting, but is to die if beaten. Günther inclines to stake his life in this trial. He and Siegfried pledge mutual service and in a few days they with the court sail down the Rhine for Iceland, whither they come in eleven days, causing a great staring from the windows of the northern Amazon. Presentations over, preliminaries are soon arranged. Günther accepts the terms; but when he and his court observe the evidences of Brunhild's strength

and skill as an athlete, which all agree little become her sex, they are faint-hearted, except Siegfried, who has among his Nibelungen treasures a cap, endowed with the power to render the wearer invisible. He runs for this to the ship, whence he is not seen to return, but in an unseen form is present and turns the contest in favor of Günther, who thus wins Brunhild, while the invisible champion is, by contract, to receive Kriemhild as the reward of this service.

The party returns to Worms, taking Brunhild and her court with them. On their arrival the double marriage is solemnized. But Siegfried had been introduced as Günther's liegeman; Brunhild therefore objects to his marriage with Kriemhild on account of inequality of rank, and the error is not corrected because this cannot be done without revealing the scheme by which Günther has won his bride. Moreover, the bridegroom finds that it is one thing to conquer the Amazon's consent to marriage and quite another to live with her, and Siegfried and the magic cap have to be brought in again for her subjugation, which is not after all at once accomplished.

Siegfried now takes his bride home to the Netherlands; but Brunhild's sore rankles because he does not make his annual returns as her husband's liegeman; she arranges, however, to invite him and his father's court to visit Worms. On the arrival, all go in procession to a monastery and Kriemhild claims precedence, as being of higher rank than Brunhild, while the latter claims it on the ground that her sister-in-law is but the wife of Günther's liegeman. Kriemhild retorts with the fatal hint that Siegfried, not



Hagen Throwing the Treasures into the Rhine.

Günther, was the real victor over the proud Amazon, thus inflicting a wound too deep to be healed. Explanations make the matter worse. Brunhild has either fallen into the hands of another than her conqueror, or else she has been insulted with this intimation, and she begins to plan Siegfried's death.

A rumor is put in circulation that the two

princes Leudiger and Leudegast are about to return. Siegfried, ready for all hazards, is to share the defence. Hagen, under the guise of friendship, tells Kriemhild that her husband is rash in exposing himself in battle and begs her to entrust him with the secret of his vulnerable spot. She tells him that her husband had bathed himself in the blood of a dragon which he had slain :—

"When he the fierce hill-dragon slew, of such enormous length,
He bathed him in the monster's blood, which gave his skin a charm :
Since then, in warfare as in peace no weapon does him harm."—*Legend VII.*, 432.

She proceeded to tell Hagen that a linden leaf which had fallen between Siegfried's shoulders had caused there a vulnerable spot.

Said Tronyie Hagen, "I advise that you forthwith do sew

Upon his garment some small mark ; whereby I well may know

How I may best protect your lord against the conflict's din."

She purposed to protect his life, but let foul treachery in.—*Legend VII.*, 436.

And Kriemhild stitched a silken cross on the garment over the unshielded part.

A hunt across the Rhine from Worms is instituted. Siegfried, thirsting, calls for wine, of which none has been brought, but Hagen tells him of a spring and proposes a race to it. Siegfried wins, just as the plan provided, and as he stoops to drink, his rival comes up and stabs him, his aim being guided by the cross on his garment. The party agree to attribute the murder to robbers ; but as the body lies in state in the palace, and Gunther and Hagen enter for a last view of it, they are divinely pointed out as the murderers by the blood gushing anew from the wound.

Here follow thirteen years of mourning, spent in visiting the tomb of Siegfried, building a monastery, and patiently waiting for an opportunity to avenge the murder. During these years the fabulous hoard of the Nibelungen, now fallen to Kriemhild, is conveyed to Worms. It consists of naught but gold and precious stones ; twelve heavy wagons making six trips during each day and night, were occupied four days in transporting it to the river for shipment.

Hagen, observing the growth of Kriemhild's influence, tried in vain to arouse the fears of her royal brother. He managed to get possession of the treasure, but had to sink it in the Rhine to save it from capture.

(To be concluded.)



THE HIGHEST ARISTOCRACY.*

BY MRS. MARY A. LIVERMORE.

IT is always a happy occasion when we have completed some enterprise or some plan of work which we have long had in hand. There is something of the same pleasure that comes over us as we reach the top of a mountain we have been ascending and look back to see what is the way by

which we have come ; then, behold, higher mountains, loftier peaks, stretching above us, yet to be surmounted. So, brothers and sisters of the Class of 1891, it is with us to-day. We have gone over the four years' course of reading and study. We have at last completed it. We are aware of the enrichment and the inspiration which we have derived from the course, but we stand on an eminence where we see also clearly how much

* Oration delivered before the C. L. S. C. Class of 1891 on Recognition Day, at Chautauqua, N. Y., Aug. 19, 1891.

more there is to do; for the leaders whom we follow are so busy preparing the way for ever higher and higher, that I do not know where they propose to stop. Every class that graduates sees stretching before it larger and nobler attainments, and begins to realize that it really has learned how little it knows. Our very class motto, "So run that ye may obtain," is full of this suggestion. It is as if we had just put on the harness; as if we had the whole race before us; as if we had but begun.

In order that I may help you and help myself in the running so that we may obtain, I have decided to talk to you about the law of service to the world which constitutes the law of our lives.

The world has never been without its standard of greatness; there never has been an age in which there has not been an aristocracy to which the people have aspired and to which they have paid homage. In the early age of the world, when life was new, inventions poor and few, when the necessities of physical subsistence pressed hard upon all the community—though perhaps not just a community in the true sense of the word, but gregarious beings crowding together after the human fashion—whoever had the brawn and the muscle to compel the means of subsistence became the great aristocrat of the time. He who was swift of foot, strong of arm, he who had the keen eye, and could bring down the bird from heaven, slay the beast in the forest, win the fish from the sea, and gather around him the fruits of physical skill—he became the great leader of that early day. Then, by and by, as the world progressed, something like society began to form itself, when the great father of a family could summon to his call, whenever he wished, many sons and daughters—though the daughters did not count for much in those days; it is only in recent times that daughters have had any very great value. But, whoever could summon to his command large numbers of male kindred who were able to help in any sort of predatory excursion or in beating back those who assaulted him or his community, that man became the great aristocrat, and those who surrounded him were closely allied to him to take somewhat of his rank to themselves. Then the time came when tribes grew out of the aggregation of families, when the tribes congregated and races began to develop. Now the great chiefs

of the races and those related to him, became the aristocrats. So on and on, until at last races congregated together or collided with one another, as in England for nearly eight hundred years. In this consolidation the weak tribes went under, and those who could not maintain themselves began to war, and by the law of the "survival of the fittest," only the strongest remained; and slowly out of the darkness of history emerges a rude, crude, undeveloped nation. Then the king or ruler and those under him in rank and in the order of kinship constituted the aristocracy. And as nations bring down with them from the past the traits and ideas of the races that formed them, we find the nations to-day are dominated by different and widely varying ideas of greatness.

If you go to Russia and want access to the highest class of the people, you can get it only through introduction by the great military chieftains; for Russia still stands as a great military power, not yet wholly out of barbarism, not yet more than semi-civilized; and the military leaders hold the high places and have the highest rank.

If you go to Germany you have a different order of things. There so much has been done in the way of thought, study, and culture, that at last it is the truth that the real aristocracy of Germany is made up of eminent scholars and thinkers. Its aristocrats are the men to whom we send our children after we have exhausted the resources of instruction this side of the water, and they take them further in science and literature than we are able on this side. It is not necessary for you to get an introduction to them from Bismarck and men high in the government of Germany. You will find them in the wonderful institutions of Tübingen, Leipsic, Bonn, Göttingen, Heidelberg, and elsewhere.

If you go to Italy and want an introduction to the best society there, it must be obtained through the high officials of the Catholic Church, because Italy has been dominated for fifteen hundred years by this ecclesiastical power, which, though dis-established, and standing separate from the state, still clings to its social control and does not give up the cause as lost. The Catholic Church believes it will yet regain its lost supremacy, and, therefore, it is still the case that you can get access to the very best of Roman society or Italian society only through the *grandees* of

the Catholic Church,—the priest, the archbishop, the cardinal, the pope.

You go to England and its aristocracy is made up of its titled nobility. It may be rich or poor; that is a comparatively small matter; but you must, if you wish to stand among its titled aristocracy, be acquainted with or introduced by some of the families who boast of their descent from some famous ancestor in the past,—a man like William the Conqueror, who could not write, and had to make his mark, like any of the ignorant foreigners who come flocking to our shores to-day.

You come to America and you have a different order of aristocracy; for our aristocracy is made up very largely of our rich people, without regard to family, and frequently without regard to character. I do not regard this as by any manner of means fixed. I do not believe this idea of aristocracy is to dominate America as long as the idea of hereditary nobility has dominated England. We are gravitating away from it. We are drifting to a time when there shall be an altogether different ideal of aristocracy in our land—the aristocracy of intellect. Not always shall it be our shame and our disgrace that our aristocracy is a plutocracy that frequently has but little besides its money-bags to commend it.

In the face of these aristocracies of the world let me announce to you another order. It was announced nearly two thousand years ago: "Whosoever will be chief among you, let him be your servant." Let him forego his own pleasures; let him, if he must, ignore his own rights; let him, if need be, disregard his own wants and comfort; let him be the servant and the helper and the friend of the world. This was announced by Jesus, our Master, our Teacher. For, no matter under what denominational banner we sit, we all look to Jesus and regard Him as the Author of our religion, our Savior, our Friend. Do you see how this idea of aristocracy cuts right across the grain of the others?

What are our American maxims? "Look out for Number One." That, we are told, must always have the supremacy. And yet I observe, watching events, reading the papers, that when a man fails to look out for himself and nobly forgets Number One, in order that he may look out for Number Two or Two Hundred, thereby losing not only property, but position and sometimes life, the world throws up its cap and hurrahs.

It recognizes the essential and innate nobility of the man who refuses to look out for Number One when Number Two or Two Hundred is imperiled.

Do you remember the accident that occurred on the Lake Shore railway, when the lightning express, under the management of John Burns—the man who had been entrusted with the care of the engine and train for month after month and year after year, a man of strong nerve and will, and who seemed to have a perfect partnership between himself and his locomotive—toiled up the grade and the engineer looked ahead of him and saw danger there? One freight train had collided with another; part of the debris was covering nearly half his track. What was he to do? John Burns had traveled over that road too many times to be in doubt. Without one moment's hesitation he decided. To stop the train so near to the wreck would be death to all. He dared not do it. He ordered his fireman to run back and tell everybody to move to the right side of the train, and the fireman and every brakeman repeated the cry. Then he opened the throttle wide, put on every ounce of steam, let down sand that the wheels might get a mighty grip, crouched down, feeling that certain death awaited him, gave a last thought to wife and children, and then, asking God to receive him, let the engine drive. It crashed into the debris, tearing out the left side of the train, but not a soul was seriously hurt but himself. The train came to a halt, and there he was buried under the wreck of his own engine; fortunately, not killed, but severely injured; broken, torn, bleeding, but alive. His first words were, as he picked himself up, "Am I alive really, and not dead?" Then the cry came back that nobody was badly hurt, and he sank into a semi-swoon, saying, "I am content." When the people came about him did they say, "What a fool you were to risk your life! How did you dare do it?" No. Even the bankers of Chicago, who knew nothing but money, men from the Stock Exchange, who knew only how to bull and bear the market, laid their purses in his hat; and John Burns, the great man that he was, said, "No; I have only done my duty; I am glad no harm came to you." The railroad company, seeing how grand and divine a man they had in their employ, who forgot Number One when he thought of the people in his care and was

willing to give his life for them, gave him recognition and honor.

What is another maxim? "Self preservation is the first law of nature." John Burns did not find it so. And others have utterly belied that maxim. "Every man for himself and the devil take the hindmost,"—as the devil very generally does. For human nature is so made up, needing so much fathering and mothering, so much loving, so much help, and so much sympathy, that if you show me anybody running the race of life alone, nobody caring for him, nobody loving him, nobody rejoicing if he succeeds, nobody mourning if he falls, I will show you one, who, if he wins the race, is of the noblest mettle and made of the finest and most divine humanity to be found in the world. There are no sadder words in the Bible than these, "No man cared for my soul."

I go over the words of Jesus, announcing the law of service as that which most exalts humanity, and remember how frequently He taught the same truth in different phrase. "Love the Lord thy God, and thy neighbor as thyself." "Do unto others as you would that they should do unto you." And then I listen to the din of the world's conflicting interests, while labor carries on its great controversy with capital, while wrong gives battle to the right, and avarice and greed tread down the weak and the poor, and I see how easily all these questions might be settled. Ah, how speedily the discords of life would be attuned to harmony, if the law of service became the universal law of life! How easily the antagonisms of business and the rampant greed of selfishness, would give way to loving helpfulness, and to a divine bearing of others' burdens!

The world has been swayed more powerfully by its servants, than by its masters. And the great names carried tenderly and reverently in the heart of mankind have not been those of Caesar, Xerxes, Alexander. They have been the names of Oberlin, Howard, Wilberforce, Washington, Lincoln, Garrison, and others who have been the benefactors of the race, have made the sorrows of the lowly and oppressed their own and sought their relief, who have contributed to human advancement, and have left the world better and happier than they found it.

The world really owes more to its servants than it owes to its masters. Who of us to-day would decide in favor of Napoleon

against Wilberforce and Garrison? Who of us would think of giving the preference to Pilate instead of Christ? Yet the servants of the world have been despised, forgotten, working hard in the great causes in which they were engaged, counting themselves naught, lifting and upheaving by the force of their divine mightiness, to bring humanity to a higher standard. The world to-day recognizes the merits of the works done with their heart and hands. This New World is to do Columbus honor next year. A little while ago it did homage to Martin Luther, one of the world's great servants. Whom could we think of mentioning by the side of the great, grand souls of the ages that are gone, who have chosen to be the servants of the world rather than to be masters?

I have come to feel that it is not a possible thing for us to be truly Christian unless we live by this great law of Christ's life; for the law of His life was service to the world. You can condense His whole biography into one little phrase: "He went about doing good."

We are in the habit, no matter what we say, of judging people by what they do,—“By their fruits shall ye know them.” I have sometimes thought as I have read the book of Acts, which has for me a peculiar interest and wonderful inspiration, that really the four evangelists would not be so very powerful or interesting after all, if they were not supplemented by the book of Acts. Not words but deeds are recorded there. You see there what the Apostles did; how out of the inspiration they had received from the teachings and life of Jesus narrated in the first four books, they were inspired to dare and to do everything for the truth.

How do we judge people to be Christians? By their lives. We see them in the prayer-meeting, and we hear their exhortations; they talk divinely and our souls go up on the wings of their petitions. But we do not care about their prayers or speeches if we find afterward that they despise the humble, weak, unlearned, and ignorant, and turn away from those who are perishing; that they are hard, over-reaching, overbearing. “By their fruits ye shall know them.”

There is another thought. It is not a possible thing for us to comprehend God as our Father except through obeying this great law of Christ. Who of us is there that would not like to know more about Him and understand the secret of our own lives? Why has

He put us here, and what is the destiny He has placed before us? Who is God, and what His thought and feeling toward us? In times of great sorrow and trouble when the earth seems hollow beneath us, and we sit beside our dead, and all seems dark, we wonder that the sun shines or the birds sing; we wonder if there be a God who loves us, why He does not speak to us and comfort us.

In the war, at the battle of Belmont, when the great guns had ceased to thunder at each other, and the keen wintry wind came laden with the pleas of anguish from the field,—“Water! water!” “Help!” “Water! water!”—we started with tonics and stimulants for the relief of the wounded. But the guns of the enemy belched forth menace and destruction anew, as the shot ricocheted near us; we had to hold back until flags of truce had been exchanged. I saw a little woman of perhaps thirty, whom I had known for many years, and had thought lightly of. I wondered when I saw her on the field wearing the badge of the Sanitary Commission. It was her boast that she could lead the german three nights in the week through the season and not be wearied, and yet here she was in the midst of the Sanitary Commission forces. I saw her take a basket laden with things for the sufferers; and tying a white handkerchief on a stick she waved it in the face of the guns and went on the field. She did not heed the shots, but on she went. By and by we were all allowed to go. We lost sight of her until morning; then, with hands and face dabbled with the blood of our soldiers, she returned; the basket that she took out filled with stimulants, now filled with pocket-books, photographs, memorandum books, and other little articles; she had all the facts in regard to each in her memorandum book. I approached and said, “You must never do this again; you must work more moderately, or you will soon break down.” In answer, she lifted up her little hands, and put them on my shoulder and said, “I have stood face to face with God to-night!” She told me afterward how, as she bent over the men and they said, “Can’t you say a prayer?” that she, who had never prayed, took the dying hands between her own, and besought the Father to comfort them in their dire extremity, and she felt that she was indeed working with God, who is the helper of the helpless and of all who seek Him.

Ruskin tells us that the words we sing, “Holy, Holy, Holy, Lord God Almighty,” would in the early Saxon mean also, “Helpful, Helpful, Helpful, Lord God Almighty.” He says that the two words come from the same root; and philology, I am told, bears out his declaration. Then helpfulness to man is holiness to God. The twenty-fifth chapter of Matthew seems to bear out Ruskin’s interpretation. You remember the parable of the great judgment. All the world before the great Judge, the great God, whom we cannot comprehend, above us, about us, and in us, and everywhere, who in one utterance allies Himself to the humblest children of His love, and on the other hand, forbids us to despise, condemn, ignore, ridicule, hold in aversion, or refuse to help the humblest of His children. He serveth God who serveth man. Shall we try to live up to the divineness of this beautiful law of service? Shall we cease to complain that our God is unknowable and past finding out, and seek for Him through loving helpfulness to His children—our brothers and sisters? Then shall we translate lives of selfish unrest into “peace that passeth understanding”—then shall we no longer grope after “the unknown God, whom we ignorantly worship,” but shall come to know him as “Love divine, all love excelling.”

Allow me to close with repeating that brief little poem of Leigh Hunt’s which reiterates in poetic form all that I have imperfectly said:

Abou Ben Adhem—may his tribe increase—
Awoke one night from a deep dream of peace,
And saw within the moonlight in the room,
Making it rich and like a lily in bloom,
An angel writing in a book of gold:
Exceeding peace had made Ben Adhem bold;
And to the presence in the room he said,
“What writest thou?” The vision raised its head,
And with a look made of all sweet accord,
Answered, “The names of those who love the
Lord.”
“And is mine one?” said Abou. “Nay, not so,”
Replied the angel. Abou spoke more low,
But cheerly still; and said, “I pray thee, then,
Write me as one who loves his fellow men.”
The angel wrote, and vanished. The next night
It came again, with a great wakening light,
And showed the names whom love of God had
blessed,—
And, lo! Ben Adhem’s name led all the rest!

Woman's Council Table.



Miss Grace King.



Mrs. John H. Vincent.



Mrs. Mary A. Livermore.



Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton.

Woman's Council Table.

WORKINGWOMEN *VERSUS* WORKINGMEN.

BY ANNA W. READING.

THAT the long expected and, by many, dreaded change of the status of women before the world, is upon us, can be denied no longer. Though the question has been laughed at and discussed in a serio-comic way for more than fifty years, the full significance of the end is being shadowed forth only faintly in the fact that at this present time, A.D. 1891, there are thousands of college bred women about to take their places in the world as bread-winners. Many of them are women backed by wealth and high social connections; not forced into the arena as unwilling victims of circumstances over which they had no control, but as self-elected workers who expect and intend to make individual places for themselves through hard work.

There seems to be a general misunderstanding all the way round, as to the limits of the territory to which women are legally entitled under the new régime. They are in a most unfortunate position, as they can keep only that which they show themselves capable of holding; at the same time they are obliged to be judged by their past history and that offers nothing by which they can predicate their chances of success or claims to recognition as individuals or bodies corporate. Therefore they wisely put in a broad claim and if they get more than they demand, so much the better, if they be fitted for their new careers, and if not, the greater the failure the better for them in the end.

That the legislation of the country is still in the hands of men counts hardly at all against women, and has only a small bearing upon the question; for men are more likely to yield their prerogatives when they have the power and right to give them, than to resign them when they are demanded, and particularly if the demand be backed by force. But this change is not a thing which can be now or could have been in the past decided or influenced to any great degree by legislation. It is dependent upon the sentiment of the people, as all really great changes are; and this has been a plant of slow growth. It is eighteen centuries since the crown was placed

on the brow of womanhood in Mary, the mother of Jesus. The honor thus conferred on the lowly maiden of Nazareth, has had the effect of ennobling and raising the position of women in all countries where the head is bowed and the knee bent at the name of the Lord.

There is a continual appeal from women that justice be done them by men, and a corresponding overlooking of the fact that it is from among the ranks of women that their most bitter opponents are too often to be found. Men have an inherent respect and appreciation for honest work, both mental and physical, and will not deny the results of it, no matter whose work it is, but with women there is a wide difference, with them there is an entire lack of appreciation of labor as labor. The reason for this is good: Women have rarely worked or lived collectively as men have; consequently their life has always been an individual one, and peculiarly so as far as their work is concerned. They may do the same work that their mothers have done before them, but at the same time, it is purely personal, where their surroundings are more or less what they make them.

In the case of men no career is open to them where they are not surrounded on all sides by co-workers, striving for the same goal, with whom they must match their best powers of body and mind. All the while the men watch each other closely, so that if one is successful they may imitate his methods and if unfortunate avoid his stumbling blocks. Thus they do their work under the eyes of their fellows subjected to their criticisms at every turn.

All this is absolutely foreign to women's experience, for hitherto they have worked as the individual not as the class.

It is always difficult to see both sides of a question, but what women most need is the impartial judgment of their work, as work done, not as "women's work."

There is no possible doubt that women will have to learn to accept a certain amount of loss of consideration which has heretofore been shown to their personality, and assume at the same time a responsibility of mistakes

which it must be feared they are sure to make while in the act of adjusting their lives to the changed conditions in which they have elected to place themselves.

There is imminent danger of going too far; this does not come so much through intention as from ignorance. Women forget that even though absolute equality of legal rights with men be assured them, there remain certain physical and natural duties to which they are born that cannot be thrust aside without the loss of that which makes women the sovereigns of the world, even though they hold their kingdoms at the price of individual slavery.

The past centuries of non-responsibility have had a demoralizing effect upon women as far as their ability to select and carry out a connected and unvarying line of action is concerned. All their training has been such as to lead in the opposite direction, the women who were the most biddable, obedient, and long-suffering being the type most approved by both sexes in by-gone times. Public sentiment did not endorse any striking out from home rule. The women who did it were regarded with suspicion. The only legal claim they had to personal recognition was regulated through their relationship to men. It was as the daughter, wife, or mother of some man that she could be accepted as having a legal status.

The fact cannot be ignored that there is a deplorable lack of sympathy between the women who work and those who do not. For as women are more emotional and sympathetic than men they are also more prone to intolerance where they are not in accord. Among men there has ever been a certain community of interests; politics, for example, where they meet on common ground, and where they learn to measure their power as fractions of a unit. Women have not yet become accustomed to being a part rather than a whole, for while they may, each one, be the slave of some one man, it has been as an individual and not as a fraction. So their position has always been positive, never negative, no matter how sharply the limitation of their free agency was marked or how contracted the area allowed compared with that which is now conceded.

This subject of the workingwoman question cannot be dismissed without a glance at the effect it is having and will continue to have upon the relation of men and women. Of

course, during this state of transition, it will be absolutely impossible to decide how the future will settle it. There can be no reasonable argument against the truth that environment has an immense effect on the physical development of children; and when one considers the vast difference of training to which the sexes have been subjected it makes one long for the old Spartan system, severe as it was. Boys have been encouraged and taught to develop mind and body in proportion; the motto given to them is, *Mens sana in corpore sano*. Just the reverse course has been marked out for the other sex. At the very time that girls most needed to have their lungs filled with pure air, and their minds fixed upon anything rather than themselves, they have been cribbed and cabined in body and mind. Is it a marvel that they are rendered self-centered and narrow, unable to take broad views of an outside world of which they know nothing?

From the start, boys are taught to be self-reliant, to stand on their feet, and to fight for their convictions; true they may not begin with a very high standard, but it is true also that it is a very real one for which they are willing to give and take hard knocks, so that the bumps on their foreheads teach them that they must show, even if they do not feel, a respect for the opinions of other boys, even as they enforce it with all their strength for their own crude views.

All of this is wholesome training; it trims off all useless and jagged edges, leaving a clear, definite plan of life, which is not changed in a man's career by the accident of marriage. Touching on the subject of marriage, there is much which might be changed for the good of both sexes.

Men have allowed themselves a length of rope which they most assuredly have not given to their womankind. Whether the restrictions placed on women are needed or not has been the basis of much argument; meanwhile the written law remains little changed. For the benefit of the women we will quote a few phrases from the old Roman law, which says that the woman came, according to legal phraseology, *in manum viri* (into the hand and power of the husband). She was transferred with all her property by the father to the husband, and even the children she bore her husband could be put to death by him. The English law from which we get our own in great part, is equally severe. Blackstone, in his chapter, "Husband and Wife," says, "The

very being or legal existence of the wife is suspended during marriage." And not this only, for he also writes that she is liable *flagellis et fustibus acriter verberari* (with whips and sticks to be sharply chastised), and winds up with the remarkable words, "So great a favorite is the female sex with the laws of England"!

While our legislation has done little to protect the person of the wife, it has shown due respect to her purse, in the fact that it is daily giving more freedom to married women as far as their right to acquire and hold property is concerned.

Whether the new order will be more conducive to the welfare and happiness of humanity, it will take long years to prove. It may be that man needs the weight of responsibility to hold him steady to his course (as a ship needs her ballast) when he is sailing over what is too often the stormy sea of life. This and much more can be proved only by trial,

just as it must be proved by actual test, whether absolute freedom may not have the terrible effect of making women throw off all restraint, after being so long totally helpless as far as having the power of making their own conditions with life as independent factors in the world.

One thing must be accepted as a foregone conclusion, and that is the fact that in this as in all revolutions there will be many things done to be bitterly regretted, many duties neglected and many assumed, for which women have neither the aptitude nor training requisite to success. In this age motives count for little with the world; it is too cold, critical, and scientific to take theories for facts. Success is the only touchstone by which women can hope to have the stamp of approval placed on their work by the world, which they will do well to remember is composed of "all sorts and conditions of men" and women.

A FAIR SYMPOSIUM.

BY MRS. ABBY MORTON DIAZ.

From an afflicted husband.

AFFLICTED no longer, for I have set my foot down hard. A wife's place is at home. Her children need her. Their and her husband's well-being requires her constant presence at that home in every moment left free to her by those society day and evening claims which rightfully demand so much of her time. The family is the heart of the nation, its bone and sinew, its foundation stone. I am not obdurate, I am not selfish, I am not a brute, I love my wife more than words can express, and because I do love her, because I would preserve her in health and in the enjoyment of her faculties, I cannot have her wear herself to tatters in running to and fro, and getting into office, and coming into contact with all sorts of persons, some being of the very commonest description. I would rather give money right out.

From a church member.

I approve of fairs because they are conducted by committees. I consider committee work an adjunct of the church. It nourishes all the virtues, teaches forbearance, patience, and a suppression of the everlasting "I and Me."

G-Oct.

that great firm which so often stands in the way of harmony among women—and men. As a worker in fairs I like them for another reason—their social opportunities. They promote good fellowship and mutual acquaintance. Cliques and sets prevail everywhere. There are church cliques and society cliques; our set and your set and their set and that set. The members of each form opinions of members of the others according as report furnishes grounds. A fair brings them to a truer knowledge of each other by making them mutually acquainted, and uniting them in a common and unselfish object. There ought to be such a word as *togetherness*, for it expresses that idea of union or oneness which is the inmost principle of what we call our religion, and it is unhackneyed. In thus uniting for benevolent purposes those separated by various boundary lines, causing them to know how much they have in common and that human nature is intrinsically the same everywhere, in removing prejudices, knocking down barriers, rounding off corners, stimulating the desire to do good, suppressing self and self-conceit, I consider fairs a valuable means to a desirable end.

From a little girl.

All little girls love to go into a fair. You go with your mother. You have your bangs 'tended to, and then you go put on your almost your best clothes, and then you go. I think they are the best place that ever was. Sometimes a piece of good candy falls off and you can pick it up. They have dolls.

From the mature daughter of a city father.

I hate fairs. I hate fairs. I hate fairs. This brief sentence, thus triply emphasized, conveys to you my opinions and my reasons therefor, and I am glad to have this opportunity of expressing the same. I think it is better to give money right out of your pocket.

From a mother at home.

Blessed be fairs! Truly blessed have they been to me and mine. My lot is lowly, but in the daily routine of housework my mind keeps up a thinking, and there's nobody to talk my thoughts to, and then sometimes I do long to do something for somebody besides just my own. I have some ability and am reasonably quick at planning and carrying out. Getting up fairs gives me a chance to make myself useful, and gives me just the outing I need. For me it answers for what the doctors are so fond of ordering—a change. I enjoy the mirth and jollity. I go home refreshed and enthusiastic, and can do better by my children and take hold of housework better. My girls are beginning to go with me and I look upon it as a means of drawing out their better natures and as an elevating and refining part of their education not to be elsewhere obtained.

From one who knows.

I know all about fairs and I think them the most tiresome, dragging, nerve-unstringing, time-consuming, husband-forbidding institutions that the ingenuity of woman could devise. If you could weigh all the time and money and strength and thought spent on fairs in a balance with the value of the institutions they help, I believe this latter would go way up out of sight. When money is needed for benevolence it is much better to get people to take it right out of their pockets than to come at it in this circumventing way. I say, Solicit subscriptions and drop fairs.

From a business man and a husband.

Although I am always glad when a fair

terminates, yet I have learned to tolerate them and to keep myself in a reasonably quiescent state while one is passing over me, having found from long experience—an experience fraught with worry and tribulation—that while a woman may seem at times exhausted, yet at the fair's end a short rest restores, and that on the whole the exhilaration of earnest endeavor is better for her than a perpetuity of that inane known as society life; better than an unrelenting course of the din and confusion of receptions where nobody can get at anybody, and everybody is snatched away from everybody. If I ever try to coax my wife to stay in from committee meetings, she puts on a sober face and says, "Now, dear, how would you like it if I could not go out? if I had to sit back in the easy chair with my head bandaged up with neuralgia, or were sick in bed, taking pills and drops, skip two and miss three, all to be shaken after taken? or if I were blind and could not find my way off the door step? or if I were so stupid and idiotic that nobody wanted my help? How thankful you ought to be that you have a wife that can go, and that is quick-witted enough and has her wits about her enough to be wanted, and to do some good in the world. Think of your blessings!" So I try to think of my blessings, she being the chiefest, God bless her! and with her admirable qualities I really do not see how fairs could get on without her—any more than I could. And there is a gain of knowledge of business-like methods and executive ability which does not come amiss in the household. As a business man, I do not see that fairs in and of themselves are open to objection. Their purpose is to dispose of goods, getting cheap and selling for gain. This is legitimate business and has nothing immoral about it. If we denounce them for reason of some objectionable adjuncts, on the same grounds we may denounce all kinds of business.

From a small boy.

Fairs are very good things. You can put your hand in and get hold of something and mebbly that thing you get will be a good one, and when your marmer gets another five-cent piece you can do it again.

From a storekeeper.

'Tis not to be denied they have sometimes nettled me, coming in, and I own I did say once that a fair was a foul proceeding, and

that I would turn every woman out of my store that came a-begging. The Bible says, Give to every man that asketh, but says nothing about giving to women, which is queer, seeing that women are the ones that do the chief of the asking. But my wife says this is because the men hold the purses and women have to ask or do without. Now as to fairs; to be sure beggars are bothersome, but a good many likely, smart women come into my store, abler to converse than I am, and have better ideas than I ever thought of, very improving kind of women, as one may say, and though I have often determined to shut my doors in their faces, my wife says this might be driving off angels unawares, and rather than do that I will allow them to come in, seeing that getting their good-will helps on the trade and advertises the business, and, as these angel women say, it does a man good to give, and then what I give is not of so very much account, considering that I buy everything at wholesale, and that the Bible command was to give a tenth. I would be willing to give away a tenth if a goodly number of others would do so, but perhaps you had better not mention this for it might cause the women to get up a "Tenth Part Society," and start it with a fair.

From Arabella.

I consider fairs a snare and a delusion; money traps, time traps, health traps, consumers of strength, destroyers of beauty and of all the gentle graces; wasteful, burdensome, immoral. My opinion is that they are all this and that they are all this is the reason for my opinions. It is far better to solicit contributions.

From an old lady resident.

After long experience of fairs, dating back to that which so effectively lent its aid to the women who accomplished the Bunker Hill Monument completion, long considered hopeless by our opposite sex, that imposing shaft which stands as a perpetual reminder of the deadly struggle which brought sorrow to so many hearthstones, ever declaring with granite firmness that we did beat the British—and from that time on through the French Fair, Sanitary Fairs, Church, Soldiers' Aid, Asylum, Aged Couples', White Aged Single, Colored Aged Single, Hospital, Blind Children's, Orphans', Destitute, Fallen, Intemperate, Little Wanderers', Convalescents', and Homes for all sorts and kinds of people, I have come to the opinion that there are two sides to every question.

THE CITIZENSHIP OF CRIME.

BY MRS. KATE TANNATT WOODS.

WHAT to do with discharged criminals is a serious problem which our wisest men and women are trying to solve.

The sickly sentimentality so often shown toward criminals is not only weak but dangerous. The man who has broken the laws of his state or country has also broken the higher law; he should not be a candidate for favors from weak-minded women or petted by those who fail to discriminate between a petty offence and a positive crime.

The very meaning of the word citizen, as defined by our best authorities, is "one possessing qualifications which will enable him to vote for rulers or to hold real estate." Does any criminal possess the first qualification? Is the man who has defied the laws capable of aiding in making laws for honest men to live by?

The American citizen is, by birthright or naturalization, a free man until some criminal act of his own deprives him of his liberty and makes him a prisoner. This is imperative, or disorder would reign.

Citizenship should be the honest reward for honest living. The leading qualifications which should enable a man to vote should be honesty, uprightness, intelligence, sobriety, and purity.

How many of our legal voters answer this description? Let us see:

In a paper recently received I find that "——— sentenced to a year's imprisonment for counterfeiting, was pardoned a few days before election." The editorial comment was this, "Not much time is gained, but the fellow saves his citizenship." In other words, he came out in time to aid in making laws for honest people.

I have before me a letter from a prison official of large experience in which I find these sentences:

"I am inclined to the belief that in many cases the prisoner goes out better equipped for a life of crime than when he came in. This may seem strange but when we consider the freedom the prisoners have in conversing with each other about their various crimes, as they delight to do, it is easy to see that what one does not know of criminal art the other does; and they exchange views as to the best way to do a piece of crooked work; consequently, when they go out they undertake a bigger job than ever before.

"If you converse with them frequently, you might think they had reformed, but in many cases, alas! too many, you will find them again in prison inside of six months, if not in states prison or some penal institution. We have many such under the head of habitual criminals. Undoubtedly some prisoners are innocent of the crimes for which they are serving sentence, and these are the men and women who can be helped with a Prison Association; they should not be disfranchised and should be aided in every way that we can get at them. If the criminals had the power they would do away with every policeman, detective, and police court in the country. Communism would reign supreme.

"In my opinion, after years of supervision and observation, I firmly believe that this class should be disfranchised; for the principles of a republican form of government are endangered by allowing them the same privileges as those enjoyed by honest men. When outsiders converse with criminals they invariably assert their innocence. It is easy for us who know them from the inside and through daily experience, to decide between vile criminals who would abuse their freedom and those who have formerly held high positions of trust and would under all circumstances show themselves to be gentlemen; their pleasing deportment, however, should not give them any advantage; for the man who has stolen thousands is a thief as much as the uneducated man who steals your watch: more so, since increased advantages add to one's responsibility. I fully believe that woman will have a large share in bringing about a better state of things, when her honest vote will tell on the side of right."

On the other hand, a worthy gentleman who has had large experience as chaplain and is considered a true friend of the prisoners, takes the most hopeful view of the condition of discharged prisoners but does not meet our question of citizenship.

In order to get reliable facts I sent to several officials the following questions:

1. What proportion of criminals who are discharged do you consider actually reformed?

2. Does not the sentimental petting so often shown criminals militate against true and honest measures of reform?

3. Should a man who has been a criminal be permitted to exercise the right of ballot and aid in making laws for others?

4. Are we not injuring our republican form of government when we discharge any man from prison prior to an election and permit him to retain the full power of citizenship?

The first question received in almost all cases one answer—"Very few."

The second: "Very injurious and unwise."

The third: Two responded,—"Give him a chance." A large majority wrote, "No, all criminals who are proven such should be disfranchised, as they are in the state of New Hampshire."

The fourth: "We violate the principles of our government by discharging criminals previous to election."

These answers were received not only from officials but from philanthropists who have had large experience.

Take the case of the young counterfeiter already noticed. What kind of citizenship was "saved"? How will it benefit the community? Is the vote of a dishonest man of more value than pure currency and the honor of our land?

Take another case, John Maloney, the real name is of little moment, was a wife beater. A defenseless woman, whom he had promised to love and cherish, he kicked and trampled upon until life was nearly extinct, and a few weeks later she was buried with her unborn babe. All sensible people called this murder, but the public press announced that "death ensued from natural causes." John served part of his sentence, behaved well in prison, talked like a penitent man to the chaplain, and was pardoned out just prior to an election. John has married again and is amusing himself when in his cups by beating wife number two. What are his qualifications for citizenship? The heart of a cruel man is not changed by compulsory confinement. The chief desire of such a one is to get out, and his next to perform some

daring deed without being, as he expresses it, "pinched" or "nabbed."

With these plain, unvarnished facts before us, facts which might be multiplied and intensified indefinitely, can we as Christian people continue to accept this citizenship?

While we use every effort to aid discharged prisoners, while we stand faithfully by the

side of our less fortunate brothers and sisters, can we, dare we, continue to impose upon the people at large, laws where the vote of the criminal counts equally with that of the honest man? With tender consideration for the weak and erring, does not justice require honor and honesty among our law-makers and lawgivers?

WATER COLOR PAINTING.

BY LINA BEARD.

DID you ever look at the moving picture produced by a large *camera obscura*? On a bright sunshiny day the colors are most beautiful, reflecting Nature in such a way as to produce a scene resembling an exquisite water color painting. The effect is broad and free, details to a certain extent being lost, as in the winding road which seems to be painted in a flat tint of raw umber, while the figures of gaily dressed ladies and children are treated in the most simple yet effective manner.

As Claude Lorraine in landscape painting found of so much assistance the glass which bears his name, could not our students in art discover hints and learn to see effects from the careful study of the the *camera obscura*?

Water coloring possesses a charm in its clear transparent tones and in the rapidity with which the work may be accomplished, objects usually being painted at once in their proper colors without other preparation than that of dampening the paper. There is a delightful freshness and crispness about these paintings which is not obtainable in either oil, pastel, or black and white.

Our progressive age has made great strides in this particular line of art, and to us are given advantages in the superior facilities of painting, for water color pictures as painted at present are comparatively modern. The ancients used water either alone or mixed with some other substance in blending their colors together, and the same medium is now employed in miniatures, fresco, and distemper painting; but by the term "water colors" we understand finished works of art in the form of pictures. It was not until toward the end of the last century that transparent colors came into general use, solid, opaque paints being previously employed; of course they

could never produce the delicate effects so readily obtainable with our moist colors. Flemish, Dutch, and Italian artists frequently made water color sketches, but executed no real pictures.

To paint water colors in opaque, using Chinese white mixed with the pigments, robs the work of all its transparent delicacy, and the so-called body-color painting can never compare with a true water color, where clear, pure tints only are employed, Ruskin to the contrary notwithstanding.

This branch of art is not only beautiful, it is useful, and a thing to be useful must have the power to produce good; by good we mean the welfare and happiness of mankind. Has it not been truly said that only that which is good is beautiful? Now all the fine arts are very useful, inasmuch as they elevate mankind and help us to realize in a remote degree the grandeur to which we may attain.

But water color has its mission apart from, yet at the same time closely connected with, the other arts. It has wielded a mighty power in Japan and has gone far in making the people the nation we found them; at one and the same time refining, ennobling, and rendering them material pecuniary assistance, entering as it does, through their religion and down to the most insignificant toy, making their productions desirable and sought for by other nations. Take from our almond-eyed brothers all water color paints, and what would be the result? Why the nation would, so to speak, fall to pieces.

Any one understanding this style of painting can easily acquire facility in the use of mineral colors, for the method is very much the same. While all subjects are painted in transparent pigments, for the amateur, flowers seem especially desirable as studies,

the delicate texture of the petals being more readily portrayed through this vehicle. And now let me say right here that the study of water color painting is one of the best known medicines for soothing and quieting tired nerves and worried, wearied minds; as the pupil becomes interested in his work, it no longer is work, but rare enjoyment, and all care takes flight, leaving the mind wholly intent upon the pleasure of reproducing on paper the natural flower seen before him. Hours slip by unnoticed, and he is for the time being transported to a world where care, trouble, and anxiety are unknown; surely that rest of itself is very good, apart from the knowledge acquired.

It is difficult to give rules for the work, as detailed methods vary with different artists, but this much may be said: In order to obtain the best results, moisten the paper by touching it on both sides with a wet sponge; have a smooth wooden board of the desired size, and on this place a wet piece of white cotton flannel or a wet folded towel; smooth it out until not a crease remains; then lay the damp paper flat on the cloth, after pressing (not rubbing) it down with the sponge so that the paper adheres to the cloth; secure it in place by thumb tacks. If the object to be copied is a flower, it is best to paint it in pure, clear tints just as the blossom appears, without attempting first to sketch in the outlines with a lead pencil, as the form changes too rapidly. Simply make a few outlines as a guide; in faint-tinted lines drawn quickly with a fine brush in a light shade of the color of the

petals. Do not make the flower as you think it ought to look; if it seems narrow when you are sure it should look round, make the blossom narrow; and if the color appears different from your preconceived ideas of the flower, paint it as you see it, no matter how you think the tint ought to be; remember you cannot improve on Nature. In figures, landscapes, and like subjects it is necessary to sketch in the outlines with a lead pencil when the paper is dry before sponging it with water.

Water color paper comes in a variety of textures and thicknesses. The very rough is more satisfactory in flower painting. Avoid tinted paper; better effects are obtained by giving your background the tint needed with your own colors. Never be afraid of using plenty of color, for there is little danger of getting the picture too bright; leave touches of the white paper for high lights, and among your tools have plenty of blotting paper as it is constantly required.

These are only a few general hints, but if followed may prove of assistance, especially to those courageous enough to try the art without a teacher, depending upon practice, experience, and their own good sense to guide them.

Only one more suggestion: Put yourself into your work; as you differ from every other human being, so you have that which is peculiar to you and you alone. It is your individuality that must help you and give to your pictures that something which will make them valuable apart from their correct drawing and beautiful coloring.

A GIRLS' COOKING CLUB.

BY MRS. C. A. SHERWOOD.

SHE had just returned from the city and was enthusiastic over "cooking," for all her friends had studied "cooking," and had found it surprisingly interesting and we did not see why we could not do as much. Some one asked: "Where would we find the teacher?" but was told we must manage without one; it would not be quite as easy, but it could be done; we must do our best and study our subject.

We could all make cake, more or less good, and had occasionally made biscuit, but were none of us past-masters in the art, utterly

incapable of teaching others, for when our cake failed, that fact was obtrusively apparent, but the "whys and wherefores" were beyond us.

After considerable discussion, we decided to form ourselves into a club, agreeing to meet once a week at each other's houses and cook our midday meal, which should be either lunch or dinner, according to the menu. Each one was to make a certain dish, the materials for which she was to bring with her; the staple articles such as flour, sugar, butter, milk, etc., were to be provided by the

hostess. We agreed to study our own dish as thoroughly as possible, and during the meal tell all we had discovered about it.

There were six of us, and we had drawn up as simple a menu as possible; broiled steak, mashed potatoes, biscuit, tea, hominy croquettes, and a soft custard. We hesitated a long time over omelet or no omelet, but came to the conclusion that it was not simple enough for our first lesson. Let me say here that now all are adepts in making omelets.

As I was hostess for our first lesson, the tea was given me to make; requiring less time than anything else, it would leave me free to attend to the wants of the class.

I don't know when I have studied a subject more thoroughly than I did tea. "Mrs. Lincoln" on that subject, was learned by heart, books on the chemistry of cooking were looked into, encyclopedias were ransacked. I was surprised at the amount of study and reading I had expended on tea. It was very interesting. I learned that tea was one of the most nutritious vegetables we had; that in many countries it was served as such, after the infusion made from the leaves had been drunk; therefore we throw away the best part; that we should not steep it in a tin vessel, as the tannic acid contained in tea acts on the tin in such a manner as to form a poisonous compound. I learned many more interesting facts, to relate all of which space and time forbid; but I felt assured that if our cooking class was a failure as far as "cooking" was concerned, we would at least acquire a great deal of general information.

The momentous day arrived and promptly at eleven the six girls were mustered into my kitchen and the servants relegated to the upper stories. I don't know when I have seen a more interested set of girls, or a more absorbed set as the time arrived for each especial dish; you would have thought the fate of an empire hung on its success. Deriving inspiration from her attentive audience the speaker gave her short address with animation and her illustrations with grace and skill.

The custard was made first, all watching, for none were allowed to help; the comments made and suggestions offered were enough to upset the nerves of an expert. We watched the peeling of the potatoes as though we had never seen one before, and were told they were put into cold water when

peeled, to keep them from turning black. When all were ready she put them into boiling water; when one of us observed that she had always heard that different kinds of potatoes were treated differently, the potato-cook informed us that the best cook books had told her to use *boiling salted water* for potatoes. She did not know an "early rose" from a "peach blow," and she did not believe any one else did! The one who had interrupted had nothing more to say after that.

The hominy croquettes were most artistically formed, but, unfortunately, turning them in the frying pan somewhat marred their beauty. We did not then know the comfort of the frying basket. By this time we were all so busy there was no time to criticise.

Dinner was soon served, and we all agreed we had never enjoyed a meal more. We discussed the cooking and the articles used. I told them all I knew of tea; the biscuit-maker gave us a lecture on baking powder, its properties, the way to use it and care for it; we were told of the composition of potatoes and the way they should be treated. This was followed by quite a dissertation on beef, including the different cuts of steak. Our dinner was well cooked and the conversation entertaining and instructive. I do not know a pleasanter way for a party of young ladies to spend the morning.

We voted our first meeting a great success and went away more enthusiastic than ever over cooking. Nor has that enthusiasm waned. We found the last lesson as enjoyable as the first, and consider ourselves wonderfully well-informed young women on certain dishes.

Of course it is a great advantage to have a teacher, but even then a certain amount of studying should be done. As it is, I do not see why our example should not be followed. Study the subject thoroughly, and when dishes fail, as was often the case with us, do not rest content until you are satisfied as to the cause of the failure. In our first lesson we found the custard grainy and stringy, which none of us could explain, but all discovered the causes before the next lesson; the first trouble because the custard was cooked too long, the second caused by using the whites of the eggs when the yolks only should be used.

In cooking, brains and common sense are quite as necessary as fingers; only by using all three can we become successful cooks.

Woman's Council Table.

WOMAN IN LITERATURE.

BY DR. KLARA KÜHNAST.

Translated from the "Frauenberuf" for "The Chautauquan."

SECOND PAPER.

WHILE the Spanish and French were enjoying considerable dramatic prosperity, the third great Roman nation showed a remarkable blank in this respect. As Gervinus says, "Italy has scarcely a tragedy or a great tragic character."

Toward the close of last century dramatic art towered to a height in Germany which in later times has been surpassed only by the colossus Shakspeare. German drama is rich in women characters. Lessing gave it the energetic Minna von Barnhelm and the beautiful, pitiable Emilia Galotti. Goethe's poems, too, offer many interesting women characters, but the greatest number of ideal feminine characters were created by Schiller.

When important feminine characters occur with masculine ones, the personal element decidedly predominates in the former while the masculine are more inclined to comprehend matters from a general standpoint.

In the next two great historical dramas the principal characters must be compared from a purely masculine standpoint. Both rank above the great mass of commonplace men; in both it is a psychological problem which charms the poet; their destinies are not pitifully dependent on an external power but follow with the inexorable logic of fact from their own thoughts and deeds.

Wallenstein lives in the midst of a great historical movement of his great century; he rules it; none other is fit for the position—and in this power he loses his self-standard. Since he has done such great things, are not still greater possible for him? Since he has the power of a king should he not bear the name of king? He does not desire the fall of the emperor who deeply vexes him, he is intoxicated only with the thoughts of his might.

Not so Maria. Called to the throne by birth and marriage still her nature is not queenly. But she proves a mightily developed woman full of elementary passion, who relentlessly follows the suggestions of the moment. So the poet depicts her not in the great historical environs which have only a secondary importance for her, but impris-

oned, weak, and helpless, as a woman, not as a queen. In the stormy outbreak of an almost indomitable joy upon her first release into the open air, her natural temperament is shown and immediately dashes the delight into an equally ardent outbreak of hate, when she is told of the nearness of Elizabeth's presence.

But what most deeply stirs the unfortunate's soul is not grief for her long imprisonment, nor hate for Elizabeth, but love for Leicester. It is his presence in an important moment which causes her to lose self control and transports her to the expression of her useless scorn, which cost her her life. Through the character the poet has diffused an inexpressible magic love-charm, so that it belongs to the most beautiful and pathetic of his creations.

It is easy to draw a comparison between "William Tell" and the "Maid of Orleans," the last historical plays of the poet. Both dramas are lofty songs of freedom and patriotism. In both a good strong people was brought low by a dreadful tyrant, help came at a critical moment from an unexpected source, a plain child of the people in whom heretofore little of the unusual had been observed stepped suddenly forth and by personal power effected the deliverance of the land. In both the same idea is variously conceived and brought out. The Maid of Orleans is incomparably the greater character. Tell certainly is a good, brave, sacrificing man, but the country's need does not powerfully tear his heart. Only when the dire tyrant threatens his family and compels him to shoot the arrow from the head of his only son, does the determination awake in him to become judge in his own affairs and to murder the Governor. But in it all he is a prudent man; he does not rush blindly to choke the murderous fiend, but thoughtfully takes an extra arrow to wait for a favorable opportunity. He recognizes neither fear nor trepidation for the justice of his course of action. So full is he of rectitude which he has exercised all his life that he is not conscious of deviating from it. In the great monologue preceding the decisive act there is no real

struggle of the soul. True he realizes the difficulty of the deed and shudders before the murder, but afterward he is not troubled by qualms of conscience. In the deed his hands are pure before God and man. He has rescued his own and brought about the deliverance of his country, without blindly tempting fate; therefore he is not a tragic character and does not have to perish in the completion of his deeds.

Johanna is different. Personally she is not affected by the encroachment of the Englishmen, but it burdens her soul to have strangers encumber the land, and in her ardent desire to help, her inquiring nature believes itself a tool destined by heaven for the purpose. She is convinced that she cannot do great things of her own free will, but that the supersensuous power will lead her to the highest accomplishment. Thus her spiritual life shows a wonderful mixture of far-reaching ideas and of childishly narrow intuitions. Though she owes no one a special grudge, yet as she personally loves her country, in like manner she hates Englishmen whom she considers not as a nation but individually as her foes. Only thus can be explained the scene with Montgomery, whom in spite of his inoffensiveness and youth she slays contrary to all the noble usages of war when disarmed he begs for mercy. But she did it not with the free soul nor feelings of relief with which Tell committed his well advised deed. She knew that she followed a higher power which impelled her.

What in every other young lady would be a natural, a praiseworthy sentiment, in Johanna was guilt and only from her apprehension of hate against Englishmen and from her circumstance with Montgomery is her boundless despair explained that there was a man from this very God-hated people who had touched her heart. What is the worst, with it she has lost faith in herself, in the purity of her will, in the selectness of her personality, and in the direct protection of the holy mother. In this mood comes her father's accusation that she is in league with the powers of the devil; and so very much she feels oppressed by a secret guilt, which no one else understands, which no one but she could rightly comprehend, that she finds no word of reply, nor once dares to touch the cross which the Archbishop offers her. But in her exile when with the exception of one true companion of her youth all turn from

her horror stricken, she considers her guilt atoned for. Her heroic courage grows anew, and she endures the hardest test that fate can put upon her,—she becomes Lionel's prisoner. With superhuman strength she bursts her chains, starts to the battle field and falls fighting for her king and her country, whose freedom she procured with her heart's blood.

Johanna could not have lived if the enemy had spared her. What should she do with her great soul in the narrow world of commonplace men! A Tell could go back to his ax and perhaps be a better man than before; but Johanna could not return to her village and flocks, for in those poor surroundings her fiery soul would have burnt up within her; nor could she remain at the court whose doings were strange to her, and whose aims had for her no charm.

It is like entering another world to enter into the Olympic Goethe's circle of women characters. With few exceptions they have nothing whatever to do with politics. The home is woman's kingdom, love the great sentiment around which her life centers. Goethe had a great preference for portraying women in the circle of their employments, indeed he himself—perhaps according to the rule *Les extrêmes se touchent*—seems to take an active interest in all the details of housework. He has Gretchen give charming descriptions of her home work. Dorothea and the worthy housewife turn their whole strength to these things.

In his prose the same feature is found. Charlotte boasts that she is a good housekeeper, and the lovely Otilie's efficiency in the house and garden was continually praised. In "Wilhelm Meister" the women, most of whom were actresses, performed few household duties, but not one of them busied her brains with comprehensive ideas. In Therese, who grew up in the country, again the housewifely inclination is shown. Iphigenie is however an exception, although in contrast there enters one of the prince of composer's most important women characters. She is an exception in feeling and thought, having no inclination to marriage, but regarding it more as a duty than a joy. The feelings of daughter and sister are so much the stronger in her, that she is in danger of sacrificing her peace of mind and her highest good to her beloved if guilt-stained brother.

In the most beautiful and charming love tragedies of modern times, that of Faust and Gretchen, Gretchen is truly the type of a maiden who has only to love and be loved, and the whole performance is rich in poetry. Faust loved Gretchen beyond all bounds, but the thoughts of a lasting union with her did not occur to him or was so distasteful that he abandoned her to the uttermost destruction of affection and soul. Thus taken fundamentally Faust's love is a very egotistical sentiment or at least one which takes no thought beyond the present hour. It rests on the supposition that Gretchen is an entirely different creature than himself, with other desires and other claims upon the world and upon life. His principal joy lay in the development of his personality, in the comprehension and the partial unriddling of the world. There is absolutely not a word about the development of Gretchen's personality. She loved, and that is her history.

In the human tragedy, as "Faust" rightly has been called, references to feminine elements bear the character of episode. Faust in the first and second part, even if the whole history of Gretchen were omitted, would always be one of the most interesting and important characters of history; but Gretchen is unimaginable without Faust.

Upon this high flight of poetry follows a period of less productiveness. The literary world, according to a great inner law, now turned itself to expression in prose, to romance and essays. In this the English excel, but remarkable women characters are not to be found in the works of Scott, Bulwer, Dickens, Thackeray, but in the extremely different production, the governess

romance, which was introduced into England in "Jane Eyre" and was zealously followed up on the continent. In these writings the heroine is always young, beautiful, amiable, and modest. The entire plot is laid to give her an opportunity for acquaintance with some great-hearted lord or prince in whom love for her develops from pity. From the first the governess is more or less badly treated by the other distinguished personages. Of course the conclusion is a brilliant wedding in which poetical justice is meted out. It is significant that the pioneer work of this kind has remained the best in the popular judgment.

In George Eliot's writings, for the first time woman comes into the foreground in ordinary life, her soul life in itself, abstracted from relations of wifely, motherly, and sisterly love. This great authoress is noted rather for her philosophical depth than for her power of poetical creation, and with justice her works have been called a series of studies on the education of the will. Love plays a considerable rôle in her women characters, but what particularly interests the thoughtful reader is not the old question whether the heroine will marry the man of her choice, but how she will come out in her battle with herself and with the world.

Maggie Tulliver, Romola, Gwendolen, Dorothea and others all enter the conflict in which they partly conquer, partly fail, and which is pictured with a might and naturalness that like an alarm resounds in the intellectual energy slumbering in so many women. No doubt in modern times no woman has done more for the intellectual elevation of woman's race than George Eliot.

HOW TO DRESS OUR DAUGHTERS.

BY MARY S. TORREY.

IN respect to dressing their children, mothers may be divided into two general classes, those who think too much of their own adornment, and those who spend too much time in bedecking their children. The former, anxious to look young themselves, dress their tall girls in the most abbreviated skirts; the latter in their anxiety to have their daughter "out" will array her in what is suitable only for mature years. For

them there is no medium between a blouse waist and a plain basque.

There are some mothers who cannot rightly be classed in with these general divisions: women whose taste is admirable in the selection of their own gowns, but who fail lamentably in those of their children. Perhaps it is because the girls hear too much discussion upon the style and fashions, and are allowed to choose for themselves. As a

rule the children of wealthy parents think less about their dress than those whose limited means force them to employ home talent.

I once heard a little six-year-old tell a playmate that she could not go to church the next Sunday, because her frock was not finished! Of course she had heard her mother say so. While our aim should be to have our daughters attach as little importance as possible to their appearance, this end is by no means to be attained by forcing them to wear ugly or unsuitable clothes; in fact, such a mode of procedure defeats its own object. Whatever is selected, whether silk or muslin, gingham or lace, do not talk about it, and, no matter how pretty and dainty-looking are the girl and her gown, express nothing beyond the satisfaction at its suitability. If the color is unbecoming, simply lay it aside in your memory to be avoided in the future. I knew a family in which were four girls of noticeable beauty, and their mother's taste in dressing them was equaled by her rare judgment in never hinting that their appearance was at all remarkable. Yet how often is one disgusted by being asked in the presence of a child, if she has not beautiful eyes or hair, and because the child is so young the questioner imagines it does no harm! That girl, when old enough to formulate an opinion, will deem beauty far more essential than brains or the culture of her own modicum thereof. How much more charming the unconscious beauty of the young girl described by Mrs. Browning:

Face and figure of a child,—
Though too calm, you think, and tender,
For the childhood you would lend her.

Yet child-simple, undefiled,
Frank, obedient,—waiting still
On the turnings of your will.

And all fancies yearn to cover
The hard earth whereon she passes
With the thymy-scented grasses.

And all hearts do pray, "God love her!"—
Ay, and always, in good sooth,
We may all be sure He doth.

Some mothers attempt to "mold" the figure of their thirteen- or fourteen-year old daughters by putting them into corsets. May their children forgive them! Never put anything stiffer than a corset-waist on a girl under sixteen. Let her be out of doors as much as possible; do not allow her to eat unwholesome dainties; see that she walks well; sits straight; goes to bed early; washes her face as scrupulously at night as in the morning, and you will have a graceful, bright-eyed, clear-skinned girl. At last Americans are beginning to see the necessity of outdoor sports and systematic exercise for both boys and girls, and when they fully realize their importance, we shall have fewer nervous invalids in later life. Indeed, in these days of psycho-physical culture there is no excuse for having awkward girls whether we be rich or poor. If the bank account is good, a teacher who can impart grace to the pupils should be engaged; but if the *res angusta domi* preclude that, the mother can invest in a copy of a book explaining the Delsarte system, and literally bend her back to the task, with the assurance of a double reward.

The time has gone, never to return, when to be beautiful is enough. Beauty never did rivet the affections, and now more than ever it needs a staying power. Let us strive to make our daughters good, healthy, earnest girls, and as the external ought to show forth the loveliness of the soul within, we will have daughters whose

—true beauty leaves behind
Apprehensions in the mind,
Of more sweetness than all art
Or invention can impart,
Thoughts too deep to be expressed
And too strong to be repressed.

GOLDEN-ROD.

BY BETTIE GARLAND.

LIKE a bunch of feathers peeping, see them gaily beck and nod,
High on Lady Autumn's bonnet proudly waves the golden-rod.
Stand thou high, Oh happy flower, stand up high and beck and nod,
Art thou not our country's emblem? flaunt thy banner, golden-rod!

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

THE C. L. S. C. FOR '91-92.

THE foreign tourist traveling west by the "Erie" or the "Lake Shore," if he chance to glance out of the window at the right moment, may see an old board sign among the trees at a little way station. Thereon are these words and letters: "Home of the C. L. S. C." The loneliness of the spot, the queer Indian name "Chautauqua," the very poverty of the sun-faded sign, the strange symbolic letters, suggest to the thoughtful mind something peculiarly American. "Home of the C. L. S. C." "Chautauqua." "Misty waters" of the Indians. A lake. A summer resort. No more?

To thousands of eyes in every state, in many lands, these old signs are as guideposts along life's road, pointing to a new, a richer, a wider life, a larger living. "Chautauqua." Bright eyes have suddenly shone with the mist of the lake at the thought, red lips have trembled with the music of the Indian name. It stands for so much, so much in a hundred thousand lives.

Before the days of the electric light the proprietor of a business house in Boston used to place a lime light high on the front of his building to illuminate his signs. The poverty and ignorance of the town drifted under the light and as the people passed under the glowing bit of calcium every eye was lifted to gaze upon its splendor. Not a human being passed who did not look up at the new light. So Chautauqua is a light set upon a high place and thousands sitting apart lift their eyes to it as the inspiration of their lives.

It is peculiarly American. Like all things in a fertile land it is a seed that has sprung into new life in many places. There are to-day more than sixty Chautauquas. Each in its lesser way repeats the inspiration of the summer city by the lake. There is the same "Recognition Day," the same inspiring procession toward the Golden Gate, the same immense assemblies of the people seeking with one heart a finer life. It is not wonderful that thinkers and writers, teachers and educators everywhere speak with admiration and respect of the work of the C. L. S. C.

What is Chautauqua to you? What are you doing about the C. L. S. C.? What are you reading? Anything except the paper? Why not read to educate yourself? This is Chautauqua—that a man educate himself. The C. L. S. C. is for all who aspire toward better things. The mere fact that you enroll your name in the great Circle is itself an inspiration. You become one of a mighty company of students everywhere reading the things you read, striving for a more liberal education, seeking all together the broader life that comes of books. You may be on a lonely farm reading by candlelight the required course of study. How can you be lonely when your light is but one of ten thousand student lamps burning at the same hour? The flutter of the leaves as you turn the pages in your silent room would be as the rustling of the winds in the forest could you with magic telephonic ear listen to all your fellow students busy with their books.

There is the social side of study. In the name of Chautauqua, friends unite in forming circles for mutual help in learning. There are thousands on thousands enrolled in these local student groups. Why not form a circle near your home? Combine with friends and neighbors to start a little ring of educational and social influence that it may spread in ever widening rings of light through your community.

Let no man plead his want of time, no woman her poverty. There is time if there be a will. Life is too valuable to waste it all on work. Life is to live—education is a larger living. It costs just seven dollars and fifty cents a year for four years to join Chautauqua, to enter, either in body or spirit, the Golden Gates that open to recognize you as a graduate of the C. L. S. C. Remember the advice to the poor art student who wished to go to Europe: "Live upon crusts till you save the money; save—and go."

Teachers, pastors, friends of education, lovers of the country, Chautauqua is not a university. It cannot teach all things. It helps by guiding, by inspiring to studious ways. It is for you to join, to aid, to encourage. The larger education that is coming to the people in these years is only an-

other name for the work of the C. I. S. C. Chautauqua is "University Extension" made practical.

C. I. S. C.! The mystic letters are in tune with the American spirit. To many eyes they shine with a light that is not on land or sea. To many a life illumined they mean so much that there are no words to tell it all.

Join—yourself—now. Begin with the new class at once. Consult your pastor about forming a local circle. Advertise, if no other means can be found, advertise that it is desired to form a circle, to bring Chautauqua into your town. Only forty minutes a day spared for education. So little to give, so much to gain. Chautauqua waits for you. Let her not wait long.

POLITE SOCIETY.

WITHIN the last fifteen or twenty years there has grown up in New York a society of people of wealth and fashion which arrogates to itself the title of Society distinctively, in imitation of the London social circle dominated by the fashionable English aristocracy. It began as a small body of one hundred families or less, and its dimensions have not increased greatly as time has gone on, though its composition has undergone changes corresponding to the vicissitudes of the fortunes of its members.

Because of this numerical limitation and because, more particularly, of the capacity of the ball room in which it held its series of winter assemblies, this society has become known as the Four Hundred, and, as such, it has been celebrated and ridiculed, discussed and denounced in all parts of the Union. At about the time when sympathetic tastes and ambitions were bringing this people together, the newspapers began to give fashionable intelligence and to report the movements of men and women of fashion at great length and with much detail. When such publicity was a novelty it was resented in some cases as an unwarrantable intrusion into private life; but soon it was taken as a matter of course and even courted, so that now from one end of the Union to the other there is not a considerable newspaper which does not make a conspicuous feature of its "society intelligence." By this means also leading members of the so-called Four Hundred of New York have been made notable characters throughout the country, and that society has

actually received the distinction in the minds of the people which it claims for itself. To all intents and purposes it is treated as Society, and its influence extends to Boston, Chicago, and San Francisco.

The chief characteristic of this society is its wealth, which probably aggregates more than the combined possessions of any other social circle of equal size in the world. Yet it does not include by any means all the New York families of extraordinary wealth, and some of its members are people of very moderate fortunes, as measured by the standard of great wealth in these days. The families of Mr. Jay Gould and Mr. John D. Rockefeller, for instance, live entirely apart from its allurements, and there are many other families distinguished for their possessions which have no sympathy with its pursuits and no craving for its prominence. It has absorbed some of the remains of the old Knickerbocker society of New York, but most of these families are unable to bear the cost of its pomp, or are not attracted by the gayety of which it makes a business.

For, next after its wealth, this society is distinguished for its persistent and methodical pursuit of pleasure. It passes from town in the winter to southern resorts in the spring, and from Newport in summer to Lenox in the autumn, from balls and dinners to hunting meets, garden parties, and many forms of outdoor amusements, in a ceaseless chase after pleasure as the great business of life. Most people would be utterly wearied by the chase, and probably the stimulus of publicity, gratifying the vanity for display, is necessary to keep this society in its hot pursuit of pleasure. But, first of all, it needs an abundance of money to pay the cost, and hence rich families generally are welcome recruits for its ranks, even when they are not yet polished up thoroughly and the grime of the toil by which their wealth was acquired is not fully washed away.

It is a gay and luxurious society, but as a school and an exemplar of manners and of breeding it does not bear criticism. The sharpness of its competition engenders an unloveliness of disposition fatal to the best manners, which must express gentleness of spirit and inbred considerativeness. It is too self-asserting and too aggressive, too careless of all except itself, too utterly selfish to be really high bred. The society which it replaced, the society of refined, educated, and

polished people before the days of our great fortunes, was better in this particular, as we see by representatives of it who are still remaining. Moreover, it is not so much a natural outgrowth of our own social condition as an imitation of English patterns, and its adulation of wealth, so essential to its very existence, is degrading and vicious in influence. It also lacks the distinction which would be received from the presence in it of men and women of commanding ability and weight of character, its members being almost wholly people of very moderate capacities, except so far as concerns their capability of keeping up with its pace. Nothing about it entitles this society to rank with the French Salon, and in true elegance it is far behind the London Society which it seeks to emulate.

The best examples of polite society in this country are found in some of the older towns and in newer settlements where people of genuine refinement are gathered, perhaps in the university towns more particularly. In the large cities, also, are quiet circles wherein refinement reigns and the glare of publicity is dreaded. In these the sole object is not the pursuit of pleasure and the display of wealth and luxury; it is rather intelligent, graceful, sympathetic, reposeful, and elevated intercourse. Consequently they draw the finer spirits and the more brilliant minds to give them a distinction which the flaming and pretentious society lacks. The people at the feast and not the viands give it grandeur. We must look to such really superior circles if we are to discover the society which may be truly defined as in the highest degree polite. It is not to be found in the Four Hundred or in any of the circles which draw thence their inspiration, however unmistakable their more social polish may be, and however dazzling their accessories of luxury and elegance. The newspapers may not celebrate this superior society, but everybody of refinement, native or foreign, recognizes its distinction whenever he is so fortunate as to get into its atmosphere. As compared with it, the other is coarse, vulgar, low in tone, sordid, and artificial.

It is fortunate for the social development of this country that the Four Hundred Society and its imitators are determined to restrict their numbers and keep themselves apart. They serve a useful purpose in showing conspicuously what society in a republic

ought not to be, and what it cannot be without casting out and destroying the best elements which go to the making of a genuinely polite society.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

THE death of James Russell Lowell is a loss which will be felt wherever the English language is read. In America and in England he was esteemed by the best minds both as a man and as a writer. He made friends among those whom it is an honor to know, by a personal attraction peculiarly rare and fine, and by his literature he set himself among the few who write what is worthy of preservation. It is, perhaps, too early to make a correct estimate of his work with reference to its effect upon American thought and life, and yet for about forty-five years he has been a notable figure in our arena of intellectual activities. Poet, essayist, critic, publicist, editor, college professor, minister to the Court of St. James and to the Spanish Court, he made a fine mark for himself in whatever way he went.

Born in 1819 (February 22) and educated at Cambridge, Mr. Lowell may be said to have begun his literary life as a poet, and in a somewhat conventional way. His first published verses gave no special promise of great force or originality of genius. They were, however, melodious, bright, sweet, and touched with a charming literary flavor. The positive personality and the trenchant humor which are so notable a part of his maturer works began to appear when he set his pen to write against slavery. The Mexican War aroused in him a very ecstasy of resentment and he poured out passionate verses against it; and in a poem entitled "The Present Crisis"—a swinging, ringing rhymed utterance aimed at the slave power which was reaching out after more territory—he showed that he was capable of doing greater things than the penning of sweet sentiments in haunting rhythm.

Mr. Lowell was an original observer; more this, perhaps, than he was original as a thinker. He saw things clearly and with a vision eminently sound, and when he came to reflect upon what he had observed, the play of his humor was like the lights from a tossing diamond.

While the "Biglow Papers" by common consent have been taken as the best measure of Mr. Lowell's genius, the critic of the fu-

ture will, we think, be slow to confirm the appraisal in its broadest sense. Mr. Lowell's prose writings set the man before us in his full strength and with the best suggestion of his rich and varied intellectual resources; the "Biglow Papers," however, will probably always be nearer the popular heart. The English critics, deeming it essentially American to be uncouth and provincial, have insisted upon Lowell's dialect verse and Walt Whitman's catalogic chants as the supreme reach of American poetry. We do not think that this will be the verdict of the ages. The winnowing hand of Time will disclose to coming critics the foundation fact that American literature is but a refreshment and continuation of English literature, and that backwoods dialect is no essential part of the increment. The "Biglow Papers" are worthy of eternal life, however, despite the dialect, not on account of it.

Mr. Lowell was a critic of the best type so far as his criticism went; but it is surprising how slender, comparatively speaking, has been the area of his work in this field. He remarked late in life that he had not yet come out of the fifteenth century with his literary studies. What he did had nothing in it to suggest the hurry and worry and impatience of average American life. Leisure was his and he made the most of it in a leisurely way. His essays have the smack of easeful lucubration in them and yet their spirit is so robust that at times it is all but boisterous with humor as fresh as dew. It is just at this point that Lowell's criticisms fall short of the highest achievement; they lack steadfastness of grasp. As we read we never feel secure from a return of that chaffing spirit which so often has broken up the serious dignity of his discussions. Lowell's conclusions, however, are nearly always the last refinement of sound judgment; especially is this true of his critical estimates of the early English poets. He was not so safe a guide when he came to write of the French and Italian masters. His essay on Jean Jacques Rousseau is, perhaps, the most unsatisfactory of all his more labored essays.

What is most precious in Lowell's writings, what gives them unique value, is the informing spirit of the man. Lowell's style is the quintessence of personal charm, personal force, it is the highest power of individual integrity. Never but once, so far as we now recall, did he let his pen slip into the ink of

uncharitableness. His essay on James Gates Percival will forever have the ring of cruelty in some of its passages.

Lowell's nobility of character and his high sense of personal responsibility made him a notable figure in the higher fields of American politics. He had no respect for unquestioning party fealty. What seemed right to him was what seemed best for him to do and he did it with absolute courage. In Europe as the representative of our government he won the esteem of the greatest men of the time. His addresses upon various occasions while at the English Court were models of prudent yet free expression and did much to draw us closer to the mother country.

During the whole of his mature life Mr. Lowell was an insistent advocate of International Copyright and he was influential in procuring the present law on that subject. In this, as in everything else that he advocated, he took the highest moral ground, demanding the fullest and freest recognition of absolute property in literary products.

We cannot here attempt biography. Mr. Lowell's father was a Congregational clergyman of note whose scholarly tastes had made "Elmwood," the birthplace of the poet, a very castle of literature. Young Lowell naturally became a great reader; but, even in his college days, was not a warm friend of the drudgery of study. He did not care for mathematics, philosophy, or logic; but took to the poets and romancers with eager enthusiasm. On his mother's side Lowell's ancestry were of Orkney descent. The mother herself, Harriet Traill Spence, was a lover of poetry, a trifle peculiar in her tastes and ways, but a woman of rare intellectual gifts. Born to a competency young Lowell grew up to the purple of literary opportunity as things went fifty or sixty years ago. He did not shine as a scholar at Cambridge, but he "pulled through" without much effort and went to the study of law. The *cacoëthes scribendi* in his blood, however, would not let him become a practitioner at the bar and he went to literature. Agassiz, Emerson, Longfellow, and, indeed, nearly all the great men of Boston were his associates and friends. He lived in an atmosphere sharp and electrical with flashes from the minds of restless, inquisitive thinkers. Every breath was a suggestion, every glance a revelation. New England was sending into his genius from every source of her life the elements of his

future output in letters. One has but to read the sketch prefacing the Griswold edition of Poe's works to feel the literary fervor and enthusiasm with which Lowell was writing some forty-five years ago; or, picking up the "Vision of Sir Launfal," one may taste the very sweets gathered by the young poet along the green slope of Parnassus, and meantime the "local color" of Cambridge and of Boston is creeping in. From the first Lowell's diction was remarkably rich, flexible, and brilliant. His mind stored up words and absorbed the art of phrasing with greatest facility. When he became editor of the *Atlantic Monthly* and of the *North American Review* he plunged deeper into study and began to give his writings an air of scholarly accuracy; this tendency, indeed, showed itself about the time that he succeeded Longfellow as professor of modern languages and literature at Harvard; but he could not get away from himself, more is the delight, nor fling aside the bubbling humor of his youth. Exuberance of animal spirits thoroughly humanized shows itself in nearly all of his prose and in a great deal of his verse. "A Fable for Critics," which was put forth without his name while he was yet young, displayed with striking force both his critical judgment and his ready command of adroit expression. It abounds in "hits" of humor and foresight.

It was in 1841 that "A Year's Life," Mr. Lowell's first volume of poems, appeared, when he was twenty-two, a not very remarkable book even for one so young. It is suggestive of Keats, Tennyson, and Shelley. In the Boston *Courier* he printed the "Biglow Papers" from 1846 to 1848 and won fame, which had not come of his volume of essays entitled "Conversations with Some of the Old Poets," published in 1845. The year previous

to this, 1844, had appeared his "A Legend of Brittany," and about the same time he was married to Miss Maria White, a sweet, delicate, and beautiful young woman who died in 1853. The "Vision of Sir Launfal" appeared in 1845; "A Fable for Critics" in 1848; "Poems" in 1849. In 1855 he became professor of modern languages and literature at Harvard. His fame was now assured and life lay before him open and inviting. In 1866 was published in book form his second collection of "Biglow Papers," and during the war, 1864, appeared "Fireside Travels." "Among my Books," 1870, "My Study Windows," 1871, were his next books. In 1877 President Hayes sent him to the Court of Spain as our minister, and in this year was published his "Democracy and other Addresses." In 1880 he was transferred to the Court of St. James, where he remained until his resignation in 1885. Two volumes of his works appeared in 1888, "Heartsease and Rue" and "Political Essays."

Lowell's fame was at its highest about the centennial year and his powers rose to meet the demands of the time. Three masterly odes were written and read upon public occasions within that period; one on April 19, 1875, at Concord, Massachusetts; one on the 3rd of July of the same year under the "Washington Elm," and the third on the 4th of July, 1876, at Boston. It was while he was in England in the full flood of public appreciation that he delivered his beautiful address on the unveiling of the bust of Coleridge in Westminster Abbey.

No matter what may be the final judgment of the world upon Lowell's life and works, to us at present he seems to be one of the chief figures in literature of the past twenty-five years.

EDITOR'S NOTE - BOOK.

PROFESSOR BOUGHTON says, that "University Extension employs the lecturer, the syllabus, the class, the traveling library, and the examination." Any C. L. S. C. student can point to important lectures delivered before the local circle and at the Summer Assemblies; to the *syllabus* which students have prepared on their books and read before the circle; to the C. L. S. C. *classes* of '82, '83, '84,

'85, '86, '87, '88, '89, '90, '91, '92, '93, '94, '95; to the C. L. S. C. books and THE CHAUTAUQUAN which make a *traveling library*; and the C. L. S. C. *Membership Book* which is furnished to members and which contains blanks for written *examinations*. The great original University Extension movement in the United States of America is the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

THE death of George Jones, the principal proprietor of the *New York Times*, which occurred August 12, at Poland Springs, Maine, bereaves a large circle of people who have come under his influence, of a man who has made his own way to distinction by his continued aspirations and exertions. Born August 11, 1811, at Poultney, Vt., of Welsh parents, he was left an orphan at thirteen years of age when he began a self-dependent existence in his native place as errand boy for a country store owned by Mr. Amos Bliss. Mr. Bliss also published the *Northern Spectator*, on which Horace Greeley was working as an apprentice and here the two boys began their friendship. It was from such a beginning that George Jones started the *New York Times* in which he finally owned a controlling interest and managed both the business and editorial departments—although he never was sole owner of the paper. The newspaper was Republican in politics up to 1884, when Mr. Jones opposed James G. Blaine, giving his support to the Mugwumps. He was a staunch friend of General Grant. In 1836 he married Miss Sarah M. Gilbert, who survives him with their four children. It is understood that the *Times* will be continued practically as before in policy, by Mr. Jones' only son, Gilbert E., and under the editorial management of Charles R. Millar.

DISTRICT United States Judge E. S. Hammond decides that it is not for the Federal Court to consider the case of R. M. King, the Seven-day Adventist, who, under Tennessee law, a year ago was found guilty of breaking the Sabbath by plowing on that day in Obion County, and the prisoner is recommended to the sheriff till he shall have paid the fine or else served the time. Having appealed to the Supreme Court the defendant's sentence was affirmed. The Adventists and National Secular Association then interested themselves in the case, taking it to the Federal Court on a writ of *habeas corpus* with the plea that "the conviction is contrary to the bill of rights of Tennessee and the Constitution of the United States and that the defendant was held prisoner by the sheriff without due process of law." The Judge does not deal with the wickedness or innocence of performing the work on Sunday, nor with the right to lawfulness of Sabbath laws, but he maintains that the man criminalizes himself in violating the state laws.

H-Oct.

CONSERVATIVE and well posted men in matters of agriculture have predicted within the last few months that the profits of the American farmers would be very materially increased during the next five years, and viewed in the light of recent developments this assertion seems to be well founded. A review of the carefully compiled statistics of the *American Agriculturist* shows the net amount which the farmers of the United States will receive for their production this year of the three cereals, corn, wheat, and oats, to be about \$450,000,000 more than they received for the same crops during 1890. Extending the comparison of figures it is reasonable to infer that the receipts accruing from the sale of these three cereals this year will be over \$600,000,000 more than any during the past eleven years. This new condition of things is due in a large measure to the increased value and supply of agricultural products. The abundant harvests are an evidence of future prosperity and it is pleasing to note that the farmers of the community will be especially benefited.

THE theory that there are some businesses which can be better and more economically operated by public management than by private enterprise receives its latest support from the Census Bureau bulletin on the social statistics of American cities. Out of fifty American cities considered thirty-five own waterworks; one, Washington, D. C., is owned by the federal government, and in the remaining fourteen the plants are owned and operated by private individuals or corporations. The average annual charge for water for dwellings in the cities where municipal ownership is in vogue is \$11.53. In cities where private capital directs the water supply the average annual fee for dwellings is \$17.70. In this case there would seem to be a saving of about \$6 to each dwelling house by reason of the extension of municipal functions. Taxpayers who do not carefully consider the scheme for municipal reform advocated by one or the other of the many schools of social reform will have a wholesome regard for reliable statistics which furnish proof that is unquestionable.

It appears to be quite the fashion as well as the duty for old and new political and reform parties to keep continually in the advance in the matter of new reform methods. It has been understood, and rightly so, that

the Farmers' Alliance of the United States was a unit in its favor of certain national and municipal reforms which heretofore have been advocated almost entirely by social reformers. The Farmers' Alliance of the state of Texas, however, declares itself opposed to some of the things which find a place in the platform of the organization in other states, as well as the national organization. At a recent meeting of the Texas Alliance the schemes for the government control of the railroads were especially condemned on the ground that "if enacted into a law they would create such a horde of national officeholders as would fasten the clutches of power upon the people so strongly that the voice of honest and patriotic citizens would no longer be heard." It is a fact worthy of comment that in an organization so widespread as the Farmers' Alliance there should be so small a minority report on a question of so much controversy.

ABANDONED farms of Massachusetts are soon to be catalogued by the Board of Agriculture to whom the authority was granted by the recent Legislature. Statements in regard to the condition and price of such farms must be accurate and the owners of them must agree to sell on the terms offered within one year. This work promises good results. In New Hampshire about three hundred abandoned farms similarly brought into public notice have found purchasers, many of whom live in the city and bought them for country residences, for which purpose they are generally suitable.

THE Hon. Nelson Dingley, Jr.'s strange silence in regard to the prohibitory system of Maine in his article published in the *New England Magazine* considering that state historically, descriptively, and statistically, excites comment on the present condition of the Temperance Reform. Maine was the first state to make the experiment of legislative enactments for the suppression of intemperance and has nobly persevered in that attempt for forty years. Thereby she has enlisted with her the interest of all progressive people and her name and the Temperance Reform have long been inseparable. The omission is the more noteworthy because Mr. Dingley has done a great deal for the cause in his state. He has been regarded as more moderate than Gen. Neal Dow, who is a radical. Gen. Dow's proposition of the whip-

ping post as a remedy for the liquor seller, does not suggest confidence in the effectiveness of the law, and is discordant with the spirit of his expressed views for the last fifteen years. It will be used by some as a shadow against the already strong public sentiment on prohibition as a method for suppressing the liquor traffic. A better plan would have been for the General not to have suggested this kind of punishment.

A RADICAL attempt to apply heroic treatment in the hope of effecting a cure of the state craze for money-getting was that recently made in Tennessee. The miners there carried to such lengths their rebellion against being compelled to work with convicts leased out by the state, that it was necessary for the authorities to resort to a compromise with them. The miners agreed to cease liberating or in any way molesting the convicts while in the mines, on the promise of the Governor to call an extra session of the legislature for the purpose of considering the repeal of the law granting the convict lease.

THAT representative men from all systems of faith should meet, and each—be he Brahmin, Buddhist, Parsee, Christian—should tell of the things revealed to him in answer to earnest seeking to find out truth, must be productive of rich blessings to all. It is proposed to hold such a general conference as this at the World's Fair; a "Parliament of Religions," it is called by Dr. Barrows, the chairman of the committee in charge of the religious interests of the Exposition. A broader philanthropy, a deeper piety must follow such international intercourse.

In the month of August, Bennington, Vermont, was the scene of an event of historic interest. The city celebrated a double centennial anniversary, that of the great battle for independence fought on its soil, and of the admission of Vermont into the Union. Imposing ceremonies very appropriately laid great emphasis on both events, and bore flattering testimony to the public spirit of the citizens. The enthusiasm with which the presentation of the Bennington Battle Monument to the state was received shows the same high appreciation of patriotism as that which has always marked the home of the "Green Mountain Boys."

UPON the announcement of Mrs. James K. Polk's death, August 14, at her home in

Nashville, Tennessee, all the bells in the city were tolled. Mrs. Polk was born in Nashville where she lived until her marriage and whither she retired at the death of her husband. Always bright and charming, when in 1844 Mr. Polk became President of the United States, she ruled in the White House as a social queen. Here in accordance with strict Presbyterian principles she abolished card-playing and dancing, but did not lessen her popularity. She was always loved and respected.

READERS OF THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be sorry to learn of the death of Mrs. Lelia Robinson Sawtelle, author of the articles on law which recently appeared in the *Woman's Council Table*. It was due to her efforts that the legal profession was opened to women in Massachusetts. Having herself been denied admission to the bar, she immediately took measures to secure the passage of an act which should grant to women the right of pleading in the courts. Her attempts were successful, and in 1883, under this act, she herself was admitted, the first woman lawyer of the state.

MURDEROUS outbreaks against foreigners have recently taken place in many parts of China. An attack on the mission stations near Canton has been reported and the execution of two rioters who on trial confessed to the murder of two foreigners at the Wusuch riots. The mob has wrought much destruction in the southern section where the Catholics have considerable church property, and soldiers have been ordered to patrol the streets at night. In a telegram from Tientsin the French and British ministers are said to have begun negotiations with Tsungli Yamen to secure indemnity for the riots. They claim 6,500,000 taels. The *Amoy Times* correspondent says that much favorable comment of the white residents of Shanghai was elicited by the promptness of the American admiral, George E. Belknap, who immediately ordered two men-of-war from his squadron to check the disturbance and sent to Washington for five more, which he was assured would be forthcoming.

THE affair of the *Nata* is what most attracts attention in the United States to the Chilean war. The insurgent steam transport *Nata* was seized by a United States marshal,

May 6, in San Diego Harbor for the violation of neutrality laws in obtaining war supplies; the following day she escaped under pursuit to Iquique where without more ado she surrendered to naval representatives of this country and was sent back to California for the satisfaction of the law. The contest in Chili began early in the year from a feeling in the Chilean congress that Balmaceda ruled unconstitutionally. The organization of a junta followed with headquarters at Iquique, controlling about one-third of the territory and most of the navy. The insurgents steadily gained favor and a land and naval battle of five hours' hard fighting, August 25, resulted in a complete victory for the Congressional party over the government of Balmaceda. Santiago, about thirty miles distant, as was suspected, surrendered soon after, as the maintenance of a government there depends absolutely upon the control of Valparaiso.

ONE of the most serious sectarian persecutions the world has ever known is the present expulsion of the Jews from Russia. The best authorities agree that religious zeal or bigotry are not the first causes of the persecution. Economical and political considerations rule the movement. The hue and cry against the Israelites is their dishonesty and that they do no productive labor, but live on the productions of the Muscovites. According to Turgeneff, Bielinsky, and other Russian authors it would seem that the Jews could not infect the Christian merchants nor even the peasants with more dishonesty than they already are possessed with. Besides, the restrictive laws compel them either to cheat or to starve. Russian laws leave them no choice of employment but trade. Agriculture, the civil service, the higher professions, are closed to them. They are confined to certain parts of the Empire and cannot seek work where it is plenty. They are made outcasts of society; are required to have separate taxes, separate schools; are not permitted a higher education, which would lift them above their peculiarities and prejudices. In countries where for a long time the Jews have had advantages like other people, their disagreeableness and lack of patriotism diminish before the development of their better natures.

C. I. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS. FOR OCTOBER.

First week (ending October 8).

"The Leading Facts of American History."

Paragraphs 1-17 (inclusive), or pages 1-23.

"Social Institutions of the United States."
Chapters I. and II.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Domestic and Social Life of the Colonists."

"Physical Life."

Sunday Reading for October 4.

Second week (ending October 15).

"The Leading Facts of American History."

Paragraphs 18-32.

"Social Institutions of the United States."
Chapter III.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Battle of Bunker Hill."

"National Agencies for Scientific Research."

Sunday Reading for October 11.

Third week (ending October 23).

"The Leading Facts of American History."

Paragraphs 33-58.

"Social Institutions of the United States."
Chapter IV.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The History of Political Parties in America."

"Science, the Handmaid of Agriculture."

Sunday Reading for October 18.

Fourth week (ending October 31).

"The Leading Facts of American History."

Paragraphs 59-77.

"Social Institutions of the United States."
Chapter V.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"George Washington, The First President."

"The Theory of Fiction-Making."

"Land Tenure in the United States."

Sunday Reading for October 25.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.—OPENING DAY.

1. Words of welcome by the leader.
2. Enrolling of new members.
3. Roll-Call—Quotations on America.
4. Contest—The rights of nations in the New World before the seventeenth century. Let three persons be chosen to represent respectively Spain, France, and England. Each is to claim for his land the controlling power in America, to give reasons for his claim, and to show why the other nations

should not possess it. Judges are to decide as to the merits of the arguments.

5. Sketch—Colonial life as portrayed in Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish."
6. Reading—"Miss Flite in Chancery."*
7. Questions on Physiology in *The Question Table* of the current magazine.

COLUMBUS DAY.—OCTOBER 12.

"Great men are the synthesis of the tendencies, the passions, the wants, the desires, in a word, of the spirit of their times; and consequently, to understand them thoroughly it is requisite to enter into the movement of the places and times in which they lived, and to study their character in reference to these."

1. Paper—The fifteenth century: its religion and superstitions; its commerce; its geographical knowledge; its people, their civilization and culture.
2. Character Sketch—Isabella of Spain.
3. Map Study—Trace, in their respective order, the places in the New World visited by Columbus, describing each and giving all the important events transpiring during his stay. Four different persons might be appointed for this exercise, each one taking one journey.
4. Book Review—"Irving's Life of Columbus."
5. Debate—Is there any validity for the claim that Columbus was an impostor?

THIRD WEEK.

1. Table Talk—The news of the day.
2. Special Study—The Mound Builders. Make this a general exercise for which all shall take pains to gather information.
3. Reading—"The Speculators."*
4. Paper—The Agricultural Department at Washington; its history, its work.
5. Debate—Resolved: That the ownership and control of railroads should be given to the United States Government.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Review—The work of the month in American History, from the Topical Analysis in the back part of the Text-book.
2. Questions on American Facts and Fancies in *The Question Table*.
3. Pen Portraits—The four Dutch governors of the New Netherlands. (See Irving's "Knickerbocker's History of New York.")
4. Reading—"A National Nomenclature."*

*See *Library Table*, page 122.

5. Debate—Would the greater good accrue to the greater number of persons if in a republic the only title to land was vested in the government?

A few words explanatory of the use to be made of the *Programs* are necessary to the new members of the C. L. S. C. All know that the best teacher is the one who cultivates the widest acquaintance with all theories, methods, and facts regarding his profession and then applies this knowledge to his individual practice in a special manner of his own. It is the same with the leader of a local circle.

A plan in itself is never to be counted as of much worth, as no one can ever hope to meet with success who simply imitates it. But there are three successful ways of using a plan. 1. If—as very rarely occurs—it should fully meet your requirements, it must be adopted as your very own and used in the same spirit as it was used by its originator. 2. It may be adapted by you to suit your individual need. 3. It may simply suggest to you another plan. If you cannot get from it one of these results drop it *in toto* and begin on an entirely original method.

The *Suggestive Programs* are made out mainly in line with the Required Readings; current events, however, will frequently be introduced, and occasionally diversions of varied character. That which should be the special,

prominent feature of every meeting will not be mentioned from week to week, but it should *always be understood*: that is, *The Lesson*. It is always to be found marked out in the corresponding week of *The Outline*, just preceding the *Programs*.

The circles should adopt some regular plan for *The Lesson*. It may be after the recitation order, one teacher being chosen to hear the whole lesson, including all the subjects; or a separate teacher for each subject. The teachers may serve a week, a month, or a term, or through the entire time required by a subject.

Some circles have found it a good plan to take up only one branch of the work in the circles, as for instance American History or Literature or Botany,—the members devoting all the time to that one study as they work in concert and doing the rest of the reading alone. Such an arrangement, of course, demands special original programs.

If, aside from its own Lesson Plan, any circle at any time finds in the *Programs* given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN any hint or hints that may be helpful, the design with which they are prepared will have been fully met.

[For further suggestions see the department of *Local Circles*, published every month in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, and the *Programs* in previous volumes of the magazine.]

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR OCTOBER.

"THE LEADING FACTS OF AMERICAN HISTORY."

P. 4. "Columbus' information of a land farther west." There is an old story, poorly authenticated, that a pilot was driven to an immense distance out on the ocean, and found a new land. The fatigue of the long journey back caused the death at sea of twelve out of the seventeen men on board. The five survivors on reaching land were received by Columbus and taken to his house, where they all died. But they informed him of this new land, and gave him their log book and charts. He kept the secret, but acting upon their directions he made his discovery. The story was given as rumor twenty-nine years after the death of Columbus.

P. 6. "O-ri-ent'al." Eastern. The word comes from the Latin *oriens*, rising; and as the rising sun marks the east, the origin of the word is seen. In the same way the word Occident applies to the west, this word being derived from

the Latin participle *occidens*, falling, or going down, as the sun.

"Paganism." There is history in this word. The Latin word *pagani*, derived from *pagus*, a village, meant the people living in the country or in a village. These people were the last to feel the influence of Christianity in its early days. Long after Christian churches had been established in the great Roman cities, idolatry remained in the little hamlets and towns, so that the word pagans, villagers, came to be applied to all still believing in the old gods and superstitions. In the same way, and for the same reason, the word heathen, those dwelling on the heaths, came into use.

P. 10. "Admiral." A naval officer of the highest rank. The title was introduced by the Genoese into Europe, who probably derived it from the Arabic word *amir*, commander of the sea. The office of admiral was not created in the United States until 1866 when Congress bestowed

it upon Commander Farragut, who had already been the first to be called vice-admiral, and before that he had been constituted the first rear-admiral. (See note at foot of page 299 of the text-book.)

P. 14. "Guanahani" [gwā-nā-ā'ne].

P. 30. "Huguenots." The reference in the foot-note is to the text-book used in the C.L.S.C. course of last year.

P. 40. "Pueblos" [pweb'lōs].

P. 49. "Sassafras root." "When the Europeans first visited this country they found this remedy in use by the Indians, and several sick explorers having been cured by it, its reputation spread to Europe, and early in the seventeenth century it was regarded as one of the important articles to be derived from the colonies."

P. 55. "A fearful accident" (to John Smith). "On his way down the [James] river, while asleep in the boat, a bag of gunpowder lying near by exploded burning and tearing his flesh so terribly that in his agony he leaped overboard. Being rescued from the river, he was carried to the fort where he lay for some time racked with fever and tortured with his wounds. Finally despairing of relief under the imperfect medical treatment which the colony afforded, he decided to return to England."—*Ridpath*.

P. 77. "New Style." The Julian year arranged by Julius Caesar in 46 B. C., consisting of 365¼ days, contained 11 minutes and 13.95 seconds more than the solar year, and by the year 1582 this error had amounted to ten days, as shown by the occurrence of the equinox. This occurrence was of great importance as it determined the date of Easter, the Council of Nice having determined in the year 325, A. D., that Easter should be celebrated on the first Sunday after the full moon that occurs on the next day after the vernal equinox. In the time of Julius Caesar the equinox corresponded to March 25; in the sixteenth century it had fallen back to March 11. In 1582 Pope Gregory ordered October 5 to be called October 15, and by this means restored the equinox to March 21, the day on which it fell at the time of the Council of Nice. The new calendar was received shortly by all Roman Catholic countries, and in time by all Protestant countries; but Russia and the countries adhering to the Greek Church still cling to the old calendar. Dates are marked New Style or Old Style according to the calendar by which they are given, the Julian or the Gregorian.

"SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS."

P. 1. "Bar." In law, "the railing inclosing the place which counsel occupy in courts of

justice"; and from this the name has come to be applied "to the practicing members of the legal profession in any community; all those who have the right to plead in court."

"Cor'po-rate." Latin, *corpus*, a body. United in an association and legally endowed with the rights and liabilities of a person.

"Solicitors." Lawyers who represent parties in a court of justice. Formerly the term was applied to those practicing in courts of equity, while the term attorney was applied to those practicing in courts of common law. "In England lawyers are either attorneys and solicitors or counsel. [The latter are called also advocates.] . . . Formerly counsel were either sergeants or barristers. The degree of sergeant was considered a high honor, to be conferred only on counsel of high standing and eminent ability."—*Dole's "Talks About Law."*

P. 3. "Client." The word is derived from the Greek verb, *kluein*, to hear. It is applied in a legal sense to one seeking direction and advice of a lawyer.

P. 4. "Conveyancer." One engaged in drawing deeds and other writings for transferring the title to property from one person to another.

"The Temple or Lincoln's Inn." Colleges in London called inns of court, the name inn formerly meaning a mansion or place. "In 1346 the Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, to whom the pope had granted the English estates of the suppressed order of Knights Templars, leased the buildings and gardens of the templars in London to certain students of the common law, who established in them a hostel, or inn, of court. The place continued to be called the Temple, from its former occupants. In the course of a few years the number of inns increased to four, which still exist, viz.: the Inner Temple, the Middle Temple, Lincoln's Inn, and Gray's Inn."

P. 5. "Brief." "In England this is a statement of all the facts together with the names of the witnesses and what each one is expected to say. In America the term is applied to a printed argument, or the skeleton of one, concisely setting forth the points, the legal principles, and the authorities upon which the counsel rely."

"Fo-ren'sic." Legal, belonging to law courts, appropriate to an argument. It is derived from the Latin word *forum*, the market place or place of public meeting, where courts of justice were held.

P. 7. "*Pari ratione*" [pā're rash'i-o-ne]. Latin, with equal reason.

"Ju-ris-dic'tion." Latin, *jus*, *juris*, right,

law, and *dicare*, to pronounce. In its most general sense, the power to make, declare, or apply the law.

"Stat'u-to-ry." Enacted by statute, which is an act of the legislature of a state or country, declaring, commanding, or prohibiting something. It is used in distinction from common law.

"Wig," etc. "The Supreme Court of the United States still retains something of the state that was formerly everywhere considered essential to the dignity of courts; for example, the judges wear black silk gowns, and counsel are required to appear before them in full suits of black. . . . English counsel of all grades wear wigs as well as gowns, and the court costumes of the judges are very elaborate."

P. 8. "Equity" [ek'wi-ty]. "Side by side with common law, but widely different from it and administered by different tribunals, grew up a system known as equity. In imitation of the Roman emperors, the early kings of England had an officer known as the chancellor. In the course of ages he became, and still is, one of the greatest personages in the kingdom. He is the head of the law and presides over the extensive department known as equity or chancery. In early times the king was frequently petitioned for redress and protection in cases to which common law did not apply, and the hearing of such petitions gradually became the province of the lord chancellor. For centuries the chancellors were not lawyers by education, but were taken from among the dignitaries of the church, who naturally turned to the Roman, rather than to common law. Thus it came to pass that England presented the anomaly of two sets of courts acting upon different principles and enforcing contrary rules."—*Dole*.

"Bentham" [ben'tam or ben'tham], Jeremy (1748-1832). An English jurist, originator of the philosophy of utilitarianism.

"De-mur'rer." A pleading that the adversary is not entitled to the relief he asks. "A special demurrer is one that specifies some defect in the form of the adversary's allegation."

"Rep'li-ca-tions." The replies of the plaintiff to the defendant's plea.—*De injuria*. Latin, concerning the injury, or injustice [of the proceeding].

P. 11. "Ad'mi-ral-ty law." Law treaty of maritime affairs and crimes committed on the high seas.—"Probate law." Law dealing with wills and testaments.—"Draftsmen." Those who draw up written instruments; those skilled in the preparation of pleadings and conveyances.

P. 13. "*Elite*" [ā-lete]. A choice or select body; the best of society.

P. 14. "*Lit-i-ga'tion*." Latin, *lis*, *litis*, dispute, lawsuit, and *agere*, to carry on. The process of carrying on a suit at law.

"Chicane" [she-cane]. A word borrowed from the French. An artful subterfuge or trick; specifically applied to legal proceedings.

P. 16. "*Sang-froid*" [song-frwā]. French for cold blood. Coolness, freedom from agitation.

P. 19. "Bench." The body of persons who sit as judges; the court, the tribunal.—"Judiciary." The system of courts of justice.

"Federal courts." Under the United States government the courts consist of the following: 1, the Senate as a court of impeachment; 2, the supreme court; 3, the circuit courts; 4, the district courts; 5, the court of claims; 6, the supreme court of the District of Columbia; 7, the territorial courts.

P. 21. "Sti-pend'i-a-ry." Latin *stips*, a gift in small coin, and *pendere*, to weigh out. Receiving wages or salary.—"Magistrate." A public civil officer.

P. 22. "*A pri-ō-ri*." Latin. From the cause to the effect.

P. 24. "Wirepullers." "Powerful political partisans who do their work from behind the scenes." Literally those who pull the wires, as of puppets.

P. 25. "Injunctions." Writs or processes by which a person is required to do, or to abstain from doing, certain acts.—The two justices besides Judge Barnard, who disappeared were Judge Albert Cardozo, and the judge of the superior court of the city, John H. McCunn.

"Judge Barnard." A judge of the Supreme Court who was impeached, convicted, and removed from office for corrupt conduct especially during Tweed's operations.

P. 27. "The Tweed Ring." A corrupt ring formed in New York which appropriated to the private use of the members large sums of public money. The chief of the ring was William M. Tweed, an American politician, whose office of commissioner of public works in New York City, gave him and his friends ample opportunity for appropriating the money. In 1873 Tweed was brought to trial and sentenced to prison, where, after a release, recommitment, escape, and recapture, he died in 1878.

P. 30. "Watering stock." Increasing the capital stock of a company by issuing new stock on the pretense that the profits warrant such increase.

"Tammany." The society bearing this name was organized more than a century ago in New York City for charitable purposes. It was

named after a mythical Delaware chieftain renowned for his virtues. Secret societies under the auspices of St. Tammany were organized in several cities, but they fell into oblivion everywhere but in New York. Here the institution was converted into a political instrument and by the Democratic party was made to exert great influence upon state politics. The society was discredited by the criminal acts of the Tweed Ring.

"Hē'si-od." A Greek poet who lived about 500 B. C.

P. 34. "Pool." To combine for the purpose of increasing or depressing the market price of goods.

P. 39. "Navvies." Laborers on public works, such as canals, railroads, etc. The word is abridged from navigator, which term was humorously applied to excavators in such employments.

P. 40. "Eminent domain." "The dominion of the sovereign power over all the property within the state, by which it is entitled to appropriate, by constitutional agency, any part necessary to the public good, compensation being given for what is taken."

P. 41. "Coup" [koo]. A French word meaning blow, trick, aim.

P. 42. "Bears." In stock exchange slang these are persons who bear down the price of stock, in order to make a purchase. Those who force up stock values in order to sell well are called "bulls."

P. 43. "Ca-bāls'." Numbers of persons united in some close design, usually to promote their own interests by intrigue.

P. 45. "*Laissez faire*" [le-ā fair]. A French expression meaning, literally, let alone. It is used to designate the let alone principle or policy in political economy and government.

P. 46. "Negotiable paper." "An evidence of debt which may be transferred by indorsement or delivery, so that the transferee or holder may sue on it in his own name with like effect as if it had been made to him originally." The word negotiable is from the Latin *negotium*, meaning business, which is compounded of *nec*, not, and *otium*, leisure.

P. 48. "*Te veniente die*." A Latin clause, freely translated, at the beginning of the day.

P. 50. "Corner." "A monopolizing of the marketable supply of a stock or commodity, through purchases for immediate or future delivery, generally by a secretly organized combination for the purpose of raising the price."

P. 51. "Consols" [kon'sōlz]. Government securities of Great Britain including a large part of the public debt, the full name of which is "the three per cent consolidated annuities."

P. 56. "University." Latin *universus*, all together, universal. A universal school in which are taught all branches of learning, or the four departments of theology, medicine, law, and the sciences and arts; an assemblage of colleges in any place, with professors for instructing students in different branches of learning, and where degrees are conferred.

"College." Latin, *colligere*, to collect. An establishment appropriated to the use of students who are acquiring the languages and sciences.

"A college was originally an institution which arose within a university being intended either as a kind of boarding school or for the support of scholars destitute of means who were here to live under particular supervision. By degrees it became the custom that teachers should be attached to these establishments. . . . The two great universities of England are now composed of several colleges; nearly all students connect themselves with some college but the university confers all the degrees.—In the United States the distinction between a college and a university has been generally disregarded."

P. 58. "Academy." A school holding a rank between a university or college and a common school. It took its name from a similar Greek word, which was the name of a celebrated garden near Athens in which Plato and his followers used to hold their philosophical conversations.

P. 59. "Quasi-domestic." The prefix *quasi* is Latin and means as if, in a manner, having the resemblance.

P. 64. "Coöptation." Election to membership in a committee, board, or society, by the existing members.

"*Ex-officio*." Latin. By virtue of his office.

P. 65. "Alumni." A Latin word, the plural of *alumnus*, from *alere* to nourish, to feed. The graduates of an institution of learning.

P. 66. "Faculty." Specifically, the body of teachers engaged in a higher institution of learning.

P. 68. "Phī-lol'o-gy." Greek *philos*, fond of, loving, and *logos*, discourse. The study of language.

P. 70. "Cur-ric'u-lum." From a similar Latin word meaning a running, a course. Particularly, a specified course of study.

"Catechetical" [kat-e-ket'ik-al]. From a Greek word meaning to sound down into one's ears, to impress upon one by word of mouth. Consisting in asking questions and receiving answers.

P. 72. "Coaching." Preparing for public examination by private instruction.

"Ma-tric'u-late." From a Latin noun mean-

ing a public roll, or register. To enter an institution of learning by enrolling the name in a register.

P. 73. "*Per se*." Latin for through itself, by itself considered.

"*Tri'pos*." Examination for honors.

P. 74. "Poll-men." Candidates for the ordinary degree and not for honors.

P. 75. "Plucks." Those rejected at an

examination as unworthy of a degree.

P. 77. "*Se-mēs'ter*." A term used in German universities for a period or term of six months. Latin, *sex*, six, *mensis*, month.

P. 79. "*Bur'sa-ries*." Grants of money for a short period of years, obtained by a student to enable him to carry on his studies.

P. 83. The Greek words mean, "Wisdom, the guide of life."

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.*

"SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES."

1. Q. How important a part has the Bar played in England? A. It has been secondary only to the Church.

2. Q. In transporting the Bar from England to America what characteristic English peculiarity disappeared? A. All distinction between barristers and attorneys.

3. Q. This system of individual legal profession has what one conspicuous merit? A. It affords a better prospect of speedy employment and an active professional life.

4. Q. How does the client gain by this arrangement? A. He is better served because the whole responsibility of his case rests upon one man who is eager to win it.

5. Q. How may this arrangement react against a high standard of morality in the profession? A. The counsel are under greater temptation to gain their cases by doubtful means.

6. Q. How is the legal profession regulated in the United States? A. There is no national organization; each state has its own regulations; but the whole calling is virtually an open one.

7. Q. In what particular does America show best, perhaps, her advance beyond the mother country? A. In the provision she makes for legal education.

8. Q. Upon what foundation are some recent alarms regarding the moral standard of the American legal profession based? A. The willingness of powerful corporations to pay vast sums for questionable services.

9. Q. How is the fact that there are fewer lawyers in politics now than formerly, accounted for? A. Party organizations have made politics so engrossing a profession that lawyers have not time to follow it.

*The questions and answers on "The Leading Facts of American History" are omitted because of the exhaustive and pertinent list of Questions for Examination published in the back of the book.

10. Q. To what is a similar decline in the social position of the legal profession due? A. To the leveling tendencies of a general diffusion of wealth and education.

11. Q. How do the nine judges of the Supreme Court of the United States obtain their positions? A. They are appointed by the president of the country.

12. Q. For how long a time do they receive the appointment? A. For life.

13. Q. Name the causes which have lowered the quality of the state judges. A. Smallness of salary, limited tenure of office, and popular election.

14. Q. When did New York adopt the plan of electing her state judges? A. In 1846.

15. Q. What flagrant scandals led to the disappearance of three justices of the superior courts in New York? A. Those connected with the Tweed Ring.

16. Q. What is a fact regarding judicial purity in other times and lands? A. It has very seldom been realized.

17. Q. What great service do railroads render to the social and political life of the United States? A. They bind the country together and make it one.

18. Q. What constitutes a great source of wealth and power to railroad companies? A. The vast land grants made to them by Congress.

19. Q. How great has been the power acquired by companies? A. They have held in their hands the destinies of cities and counties and even of states and territories.

20. Q. Mention some notable instances in which this was true. A. California was for many years at the mercy of the Central Pacific; Oregon and Washington were dependent upon the Northern Pacific.

21. Q. How far has railroad influence been carried in New York and Pennsylvania? A. It

THE QUESTION TABLE.

has thrown its weight into the scales of a political party, and given it money and votes.

22. Q. Under such circumstances what was rendered inevitable? A. Conflicts between railroads and state governments.

23. Q. How did the railways defeat the restricting Granger laws? A. By bringing their influence to play upon the state legislatures.

24. Q. How was the difficulty finally settled? A. Congress passed an act to establish an Interstate Commerce Commission.

25. Q. Why is objection made to the proposal to place railways and telegraphs in the hands of the nation? A. It would give immense power to the party holding office.

26. Q. What relation which marked the cities of the ancient world do American railways bear toward one another to-day? A. That of war.

27. Q. By what means has the face of modern commerce been changed? A. By the creation of incorporated joint-stock companies.

28. Q. How has a peculiar development of these arts of combination manifested itself in America? A. In the form of trusts.

29. Q. Name a remarkable feature of the United States as regards speculation. A. That so many should engage in it.

30. Q. Where does this eager interest center? A. In Wall Street, New York.

31. Q. Name the two determining powers in business which have their headquarters in

Wall Street. A. Finance and transportation.

32. Q. During the Civil War what formed the great base of speculation? A. Gold.

33. Q. Since the war to what have the eyes of speculators been chiefly directed? A. To railways, mines, and the products of manufacture and agriculture.

34. Q. How does Wall Street tell on the character of the people? A. It increases their constitutional excitability and high nervous tension.

35. Q. Give the definition of a university. A. A place where a high order of teaching is given in a range of subjects covering all the great departments of intellectual life.

36. Q. How many such institutions are to be found in the United States? A. Not more than twelve.

37. Q. What institutions are deemed entitled to grant degrees? A. Only those chartered by the state.

38. Q. How do American colleges provide for studies not included in the regular four years' course? A. By post-graduate courses.

39. Q. What are meant by Greek Letter Societies? A. Secret clubs or fraternities of students established in the universities.

40. Q. In what two channels have the efforts for the higher education of women flowed in America? A. Co-education in already established institutions, and the establishment of separate schools for women.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

AMERICAN FACTS AND FANCIES.

1. The military policy of Washington in declining to risk a battle in the open field gave him what popular sobriquet?

2. Who was called the Colossus of Independence, and why?

3. What president was known as Long Tom among his political opponents?

4. For what two reasons has Madison been called the Father of the Constitution?

5. What general received from the Creek Indians the names of Big Knife and Sharp Knife?

6. Who was called by the Whigs the Accidental President?

7. What president was called the American Louis Philippe on account of his similarity in physique to the French king?

8. What president was often alluded to by the newspapers of his day as O. P. F., and for what did the initials stand?

9. Who was called the Wizard of Kinderhook, and why?

10. Why was General Grant called by his soldiers Old Three Stars?

PHYSIOLOGY.

1. From what is the word physiology derived?

2. What constitutes the difference between an organic and an inorganic body?

3. Can inorganic bodies be said to grow?

4. Give the meaning of the word intussusception as used in physiology.

5. Define the word function in its physiological sense.

6. From within the two kingdoms, organic and inorganic, what difference is observed regarding the process of change?

7. Name the most essential distinction existing between the two classes of the organic kingdom—animals and plants.

8. From what three sources is the blood formed?

9. In what form is the nutriment from the digestive apparatus given to the blood?

10. Name all the parts composing the apparatus for the circulation of the blood.

11. Which is attended with more danger, a wound inflicted upon an artery or upon a vein, and why?

12. Does the arterial system of the body have the same capacity that the venous system has?

13. Where is the change of color in the blood from the dark red of the veins to the light red of the arteries effected?

14. Professor Huxley says, "Life has but two legs to stand upon"; what are they?

15. What opposite effects have shame and fear upon the heart beats?

BOTANY.

1. Give a concise definition of botany.

2. What does the word mean in itself?

3. What is the difference between botany and phytonomy?

4. Who wrote the oldest botanical book now extant?

5. What other science in the beginning of its history was botany made to serve?

6. Why did close observation of the habits of animals lead to valuable discoveries in the study of medicinal herbs?

7. Define the term bot'a-nō-man-cy.

8. In their practice of divination what use did the ancients make of the leaves of the sage and the fig?

9. The names of how many kinds of plants

that can be identified are mentioned in the Scriptures?

10. Of which botanical system, the natural or the artificial, was Linnæus the founder?

THE WORLD OF TO-DAY—CANADA.

1. How does Canada compare in size with the United States?

2. When and how was the Dominion of Canada constituted?

3. Are there any British possessions in North America which do not belong to the Dominion?

4. In which one of the provinces of the Dominion has there been a strong secession movement?

5. In whom is the executive authority vested in the Canadian government?

6. Who is the present governor-general, and when was he appointed?

7. By whom is the legislative power exercised?

8. By what title is the leading man in the popular government known?

9. For how long a time was Sir John MacDonald premier of the Dominion?

10. Who is now the prime minister?

11. What is a reciprocity treaty?

12. When did the first reciprocity treaty between Canada and the United States go into effect?

13. For the free interchange of what products did this treaty provide?

14. When was this treaty abrogated?

15. Under what subsequent treaty was the fisheries question between the two countries regulated?

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882—1895.

CLASS OF 1892.—"THE COLUMBIA."

"Seek and ye shall obtain."

OFFICERS.

President—Col. Logan H. Roots, Little Rock, Ark.

First Vice-President—Prof. Lewis Stuart, Ill.

Second Vice-President—F. W. Gunsaulus, Ill.

District Vice-Presidents—Mrs. Jesse L. Hurlbut, New Jersey, Eastern Vice-President; Mrs. Frank Beard, Illinois, Western Vice-President; Mr. C. L. Williamson, Kentucky, Southern Vice-President; Dr. P. S. Heason, Illinois, Western Vice-President.

Secretary—Mrs. J. Monroe Cooke, Boston, Mass.

Treasurer—Mr. Lewis E. Snow, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—CARNATION.

THE Class of '92 has now wheeled into the front line of the great regular army of the

C. L. S. C. undergraduates. The spirit animating its members gives promise that its aim will be to march on to the victory of graduation with a vanguard in which enthusiasm, ardor, perseverance, and success will be at least as marked as in any of its predecessors.

THE Class was well represented at Chautauqua and the frequent calls made for meetings spoke well both for the fraternal spirit and the working spirit influencing it. According to the established custom its members paid the Graduating Class the courtesy of decorating the Hall of Philosophy for the Recognition services, and the beautiful result reflected great credit upon the workers.

CLASS OF 1893.—"THE ATHENIANS."

"Study to be what you wish to seem."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. R. C. Dodds, 337 Summer St., Buffalo, N. Y.*Vice-Presidents*—George W. Driscoll, Syracuse, N. Y.; Mrs. S. M. I. Henry, Meadville, Pa.; Miss Kate McGillioray, Port Calborne, Province Ontario, Canada; the Rev. M. D. Lichliter, McKeesport, Pa.; the Rev. A. F. Ashton, Ohio; Mrs. Helen M. Anthony, Ottawa, Ill.; Mrs. A. W. Merwin, Milton, Conn.*General Secretary*—Dr. Julia Ford, Milwaukee, Wis.*Prison Secretary*—Mrs. S. M. I. Henry, Meadville, Pa.*District Secretaries*—The Rev. T. H. Paden, New Concord, Ohio; the Rev. R. S. Porter, Bridgewater, Mass.; the Rev. Chas. Thayer, D.D., Minneapolis, Minn.; L. R. Welch, Albany, Ga.; the Rev. D. C. C. Simmons, Tyler, Texas; Mrs. Belle Gentry, Chicago, Ill.*Treasurer*—Prof. W. H. Scott, Syracuse, N. Y.*Class Trustee*—George E. Vincent.*Executive Committee*—Miss Kate Little, Connecticut; Prof. W. H. Scott; Mrs. Anthony.*Building Committee*—The Rev. R. C. Dodds, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. H. M. Anthony, Ottawa, Ill.

THE Class met Mondays and Thursdays during the Chautauqua session. Much enthusiasm was manifested. Fifty of its members marched in the procession on Recognition Day. Plans were discussed for raising money for a class building. A beautiful banner was presented it by the Syracuse West End Circle. In all probability it will adopt as its study emblem the oak.

CLASS OF 1894—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

"Ubi mel, ibi apes."

OFFICERS.

President—John Habberton, New York City.*Vice-Presidents*—The Rev. A. C. Ellis, Jamestown, N. Y.; the Rev. E. D. Ledyard, Steubenville, Ohio; the Rev. L. A. Banks, Boston, Mass.; the Rev. Mr. Cosby, Neb.; the Rev. Dr. Livingston, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Helen Campbell, New York City; the Rev. J. W. Lee, D. D., Atlanta, Ga.*Secretary*—Miss Grace B. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.*Treasurer*—Mr. Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.*Class Trustee*—W. T. Everson, Union City, Pa.*Building Committee*—William T. Everson, Union City, Pa.; Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.; Mr. C. Foskey, Shamburg, Pa.; Miss Grace B. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

THE Class of '94 held a number of important meetings at Chautauqua this summer and the class spirit manifested was very strong. The class flower was changed from the red clover to clover as it was thought desirable to include any variety of the clover species.

The old officers were re-elected, and it was voted to raise money for a banner which should be borne at the head of the class on Recognition Day.

Plans for future work were outlined as follows: 1. Let all members of '94 do their share

in encouraging fellow students. The class numbers nearly fifteen thousand and by persistent devotion we may graduate a large proportion.

2. Former C. L. S. C. members who have read the English year and then dropped by the way, can have credit for this work, join the Class of '94, and as fully equipped members take up their second year's study, the American year. Seek out all such C. L. S. C. members and bring them back into the ranks of working Chautauquans.

3. The building and banner funds need contributions from loyal '94's. Those who come to Chautauqua realize the great advantages of a class home. The Union Class Building, in which ten classes are now interested, promises to be an established fact next year and every member of the class who spends even a day at Chautauqua in the years to come will find the '94 room in the Class Building a center of enjoyment and inspiration. It has been suggested that '94's celebrate Founder's Day, Feb. 23, Bishop Vincent's birthday, by holding a lecture or entertainment or "tea" or any other social or literary gathering, the proceeds of which shall be devoted to the building fund. A few hearty efforts of this kind would give us our Class Building free of debt and such a gathering would do much to promote the interests of Chautauqua work in a community. Founder's Day was selected as it is a day of general interest to all Chautauquans, and members of other classes may like to unite with the '94's in this effort.

CLASS OF 1895—"THE PATHFINDERS."

*"The truth shall make you free."**President*—Dr. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.*Vice-Presidents*—The Rev. Dr. Wilbur Crafts, New York; Miss Grace Dodge, New York; Mrs. Olive A. James, Rimersburg, Pa.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. Frank O. Flynn, Belleville, Ont.; the Rev. William M. Hayes, Oxford, Ga.; the Rev. Hervey Wood, Passaic, N. J.; Mrs. E. H. Durgin, Portland, Ore.; Miss Carrie L. Turrentine, Gadsden, Ala.; Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, Richmond, Va.; Mrs. R. H. I. Goddard, Providence, R. I.*Corresponding Secretary*—Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.*Recording Secretary*—Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.*Treasurer*—Mrs. E. C. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.*Trustee of the Building Fund*—The Rev. Fred. L. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.

CLASS FLOWER—CHRYSANTHEMUM.

THE farewell meeting of the new class organized at Chautauqua was a most enthusiastic one. The old-fashioned Chautauqua fire had so taken hold of the hearts and minds of its new members, that news of great things done by them in their respective homes may be confidently expected. The books show that five hundred and fifty registered at the C. L. S. C. Office on the grounds, as members, a larger number than for

any previous year. Among this number there are numerous clergymen representing nine different denominations.

The Class of '95 is proud to have as one of its members Mr. Lewis Miller, the President of Chautauqua. Dr. Thorpe, the author of one of the books in the course of Required Readings for the present year, also joined the "Pathfinders."

During the Chautauqua season the Class of '87 tendered the Class of '95 a reception at which the leading topic of conversation was the combination of the forces of the two classes for the erection of an alumni hall.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

CLASS OF 1891.—"THE OLYMPIANS."

"So run that ye may obtain."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. J. M. Durrell, D. D., Tilton, N. H.
Vice-Presidents—The Rev. J. S. Ostrander, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Dr. H. R. Palmer, New York City; W. H. Wescott, Holly, N. Y.; J. E. Harkness, Council Bluffs, Ia.; Mrs. L. E. Hawley, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. J. T. Guernsey, Independence, Kan.; H. F. Shupe, Braddock, Pa.

Secretary—Mrs. James S. Ostrander, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Assistant Secretary—Miss Jennie Phillips, Hulburton, N. Y.

Treasurer—Miss Clara L. Sargent, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Class Trustee—W. H. Wescott, Holly, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWERS—THE LAUREL AND WHITE ROSE.

CLASS OF 1890.—"THE PIERIANS."

"Redeeming the Time."

OFFICERS:

President—Professor D. A. McClenahan, D. D., Allegheny, Pa.

Vice-Presidents—Geo. H. Iott, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Anna L. Sanderson, Toronto, Canada; Dr. J. T. Edwards, Randolph, N. Y.; Mr. Charles W. Nickerson, Sunbury, Pa.; Miss Sarah Young, Danville, Ky.; Mr. Seymour Dean; Mr. Z. L. White, Columbus, O.; Mr. John Lee Draper, Providence, R. I.

Eastern Secretary—Miss G. L. Chamberlain, New Haven, Conn.

Western Secretary—The Rev. H. B. Waterman, D. D., Griggsville, Ill.

CLASS FLOWER—THE TUBEROSE.

CLASS OF 1889.—"THE ARGONAUTS."

"Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. W. A. Hutchison, Franklin, Ohio.
Vice-Presidents—Mrs. C. E. Dickinson, Marietta, O.; Mrs. J. R. Harrah, Beaver, Pa.; Mrs. J. R. Hawes, Mendota, Ill.

Secretary—The Rev. S. M. Day, Honeoye, N. Y.
Treasurer—O. M. Allen, 324 Main St., Buffalo, N. Y.
Trustee—The Rev. S. M. Day, Honeoye, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—THE DAISY.

CLASS OF 1888—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

"Let us be seen by our deeds."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. A. E. Dunning, D. D., Boston, Mass.
Vice-Presidents—Mr. S. H. French, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Mrs. G. B. McCabe, Sidney, Ohio; the Rev. L. A. Stevens, Perry, N. Y.; Mrs. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.; Mrs. M. C. F. Warner, New York City; Mrs. J. W. Selvage, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss C. E. Coffin, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. J. M. Hunter, Barre, Ont.; Mrs. Lucy B. Reeves, Seattle, Wash.; Mrs. Nettie G. Davis, Lincoln, Neb.; Mrs. E. T. Lehmen, Philad.; Mrs. M. S. Case, Highland Park, Conn.; Mr. S. C. Johnson, Racine, Wis.; the Rev. Albert Livermore, Spencer, N. Y.; Mr. E. P. Gale, Frederick, Md.; Mr. H. A. Taylor, E. Cleveland, O.; Prof. W. N. Ellis, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. W. P. Cragin, Evanston, Ill.

Secretary—Mr. Wm. McKay, E. Norwich, N. Y.

Treasurer—Mr. Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.

Local Secretary—Miss Belle Douglass, Syracuse, N. Y.

Class Chronicler—Mrs. A. C. Teller, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Trustee of Class Building—Mr. Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—GERANIUM.

CLASS OF 1887.—"THE PANSIES."

"Neglect not the gift that is in thee."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. Frank Russell, 117 Bible House, New York City.

Vice-Presidents—James A. Taft, Brooklyn, N. Y.; the Rev. G. R. Alden, Washington, D. C.; the Rev. C. M. Westlake, Manistee, Mich.; Mrs. Harriet E. Pratt, Sedalia, Mo.

Eastern Secretary—Prof. H. R. Barrett, Syracuse, N. Y.

Western Secretary—K. A. Burnell, Chicago, Ill.

Treasurer and Trustee—The Rev. Frank Russell.

Committee on Ways and Means—Miss Cornell, Mrs. Harris, Miss Clapp, and Mrs. Crossman.

CLASS FLOWER—THE PANSY.

CLASS OF 1886—"THE PROGRESSIVES."

"We study for light to bless with light."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. S. Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

Secretary—Mrs. R. Burrows, Andover, N. Y.

Treasurer—W. F. Dunn, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Treasurer Class Building Fund—Mr. S. Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

First Vice-President—J. H. Kellogg, Rochester, N. Y.

Second Vice-President—Mrs. M. Grosbeck, Titusville, Pa.

CLASS FLOWER—THE ASTER.

CLASS COLORS—CREAM AND SHRIMP PINK.

CLASS OF 1885.—"THE INVINCIBLES."

"Press on, reaching after those things which are before."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.

First Vice-President—Miss Abbie M. Hatch, Griggsville, Ill.

Second Vice-President—Mrs. George P. Durham, New Haven, Conn.

Third Vice-President—Mrs. Asenath M. B. McCleary, New Castle, Pa.

Secretary—Miss L. Minnie Jillson, Whitehall, N. Y.

Treasurer—Mrs. W. S. Ensign, Garrettsville, O.

CLASS FLOWER—THE HELIOTROPE.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

CLASS OF 1884.—"THE IRREPRESSIBLES."

"Press forward; he conquers who will."

OFFICERS.

President—Mr. John F. Fairbanks, Puget Sound.
Vice-President—Mrs. S. M. J. Eaton, Franklin, Pa.; Mrs. E. J. Baker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. J. D. Park, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. Dexter Horton, Seattle, Wash.; Mr. George Miner, Fredonia, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. Adelaide L. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.
Treasurer—The Rev. W. D. Bridge, 3 Cheshire Street, Jamaica Plain, Mass.

Executive Committee—Miss Sara N. Graybill, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Amelia H. Falkner, Hartwell, O.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. H. H. Moore, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Lizzie Parmelee, Lockport, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—THE GOLDEN-ROD.

CLASS OF 1883.—"THE VINCENT."

"Step by step we gain the heights."

OFFICERS.

President—Miss Annie H. Gardner, 22 St. Charles Street, Boston, Mass.

Vice-Presidents—Miss H. E. Eddy, Chautauqua, N. Y.; the Rev. Joseph Philip, Watford, Ont., Canada.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Ann C. Hitchcock, Burton, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—THE SWEET-PEA.

CLASS OF 1882.—"THE PIONEERS."

"From height to height"

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. B. T. Vincent.

Vice-Presidents—Dr. J. L. Hurlbut; Mr. Lewis Peake, Canada; Mrs. A. M. Martin, Pennsylvania; Miss M. F. Wells, Alabama; Mrs. J. A. Bemis, New York; Judge F. E. Sessions, New York; Mrs. Barlow, Michigan.

Secretary—Mrs. E. F. Curtis, New York.

Treasurer—Mrs. A. D. Wilder, New York.

Trustees—Mrs. Thomas Park; Miss Ella Beaujean; Judge F. E. Sessions; Miss Anna Cummings; the Rev. C. Y. Stevens.

CLASS SYMBOL—A HATCHET.

THE LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

OFFICERS.

President—Lewis C. Peake, Eglington, Ont.
First Vice-President—Mrs. A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Second Vice-President—Miss Agnes Boyce, Wellsville, Ohio.

Secretary—Miss Anna Cummings, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Executive Committee—Miss C. A. Teal, 214 Halsey St., Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. T. S. Park, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. P. W. Bemis, Westfield, N. Y.

THE membership of the League of the Round Table in the different class is as follows, '82 taking the lead, '86 coming next; '82, 291; '83, 110; '84, 96; '85, 63; '86, 213; '87, 136; '88, 124; '89, 130; '90, 98.

ORDER OF THE WHITE SEAL.

OFFICERS.

President—H. C. Milliman, Middleport, N. Y.

First Vice-President—Miss H. R. McCracken, Volant, Pa.

Second Vice-President—Mrs. A. T. McCollin, Sugar Grove, Pa.

Secretary—Mrs. W. D. Bridge.

Treasurer—Miss Rose Wallace, Mayville, N. Y.

THE membership of the Order of the White Seal in the different classes is as follows, '89 taking the lead, '90 coming next; '82, 624; '83, 300; '84, 231; '85, 189; '86, 605; '87, 258; '88, 397; '89, 937; '90, 933.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God."**"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."**"Never be Discouraged."*

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

COLUMBUS DAY—October 12.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

FRANKLIN DAY—November 22.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

SOMETHING of the feelings experienced by one who is trying to take up again a broken thread of thought crowd upon the circles who are about to resume their work. As such a one has often to pass back, with delicate touches, over fold after fold of the thread already wound,

before the desired end is reached, so the circle members will find it necessary to review carefully the line of work for last year in order that the present may be most fittingly connected with it. At this point care must be taken not to attempt the winding too swiftly, or the arms

will soon grow weary and in a careless moment snap will go the thread again and discouragement will follow with its temptations to let the task go unresumed. But the dismal part of this comparison will not apply to well established circles. They early learned to gauge their greatest speed of endurance, and this done, to move steadily along, opposing weariness and monotony with renewed interest and novelty, thereby continuing to enjoy the best results.

It naturally follows that if steadiness is desirable a good start is important. Spread the canvass for membership far and wide. Make the first meeting very attractive and explain definitely what will be really required and what may be anticipated by every one who reads the course, taking pains to impress the superior advantages of reading in a circle.

If there is to be a regular place of meeting, a jolly old-fashioned house-warming for the first gathering might secure popularity and would offer a happy occasion for the presentation by members of maps, pictures of special interest or beauty, reference books, and many convenient articles. Refreshments might be served and a general good time emphasize the remarks made in behalf of the circle. This or any device for a good start at once in tools and plans should, if possible, open the season of study.

Each member should early be pressed into service. The course for the "American Year" offers unusual opportunities for the practice of this suggestion. The country is rich in funds of information,—such as relics, historical manuscripts, and the knowledge possessed by the old inhabitants. Let those who have had the craze for collecting spoons and postage stamps use their experience in accumulating arrowheads, and views and descriptions from old papers, magazines, and books, on the subjects in hand, and let those interested in fancy-work make pretty, suitable folios to contain them. Let others go out as gleaners of local historical facts seeking the material in interviews with those who know or in ransacking store-rooms for old papers and manuscripts, and gather data in regard to localities and people.

New circles should promptly apply to Bishop John H. Vincent, Box 194, Buffalo, N. Y., for information concerning the C. L. S. C., which will be given free of charge, in the form of a pamphlet suggesting plans for local circles.

The best material is amply furnished to members of circles and it remains only to appropriate what one wishes and further to elaborate it in his own private workshop, in his moments of meditation. Upon each one rests the responsibility of rejecting what he does not care to use,

and besides the regular course he has all the suggestions of the circle to choose from.

The real circle is by no means a charitable headquarters where begged ideas are taken from fruitful brains and doled out to the needy to even off the measure of people's intellects, but it is an independent, dignified, and self-supporting institution that encourages fertility of thought and action, that grows its own ideas and does honor to the individual authors of them while making their power felt for good.

People appreciate this, and while the facts to be gleaned by each one are the most practicable possible, it is the joy of bending them to a purpose, and in order to do this best of seeing them in their various relations and as other people see them that gives a charm to the circle and to life. The circle is an ideal place for the true appreciation of a stroke of genius; nothing unworthy is extolled, because nobody shines by contrast with the surrounding darkness as everybody comes enlightened and the standard is so liberal that all branches of excellence are included. But the management must be conducted to accommodate the different talents that comprise it. The very liberality and diversity of the composing elements which is the spice of circles prevent their all following the same groove; nor is it necessary nor fitting that they should, since from their very nature each one develops its own character and abilities.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS.

For the new year the Special Memorial Days are:

October 12—Columbus.
November 22—Franklin.
December 5—Washington.
January 1—Lincoln.
February 22—Lowell.
March 29—Hawthorne.
April 15—Whittier.
May 10—Lessing.
June 3—Goethe.

HAPPY PLANS.

A NUMBER of circles are meeting with success in the Lecture Course plan. The Athenian C. L. S. C. of Lanark, Ill., draws up a paper stating that if it can secure enough names it will furnish certain entertainments. This circle continues to sustain the interest of its history as it progresses, and perhaps in a glance at its career other circles may find some aids by which to vary their programs. By its method each study is assigned to some member by a program committee and recitations therein are conducted by the same leader until the book is

finished. Topics are frequently assigned during the week, and much illustrative material is brought to the class. Pictures of noted people and places, collections of birds, shells, geological specimens, etc., lend their aid in making lessons interesting. . . . At one time the different circles in the county took turns in inviting all the others to meet with them; a program was given and refreshments served. Each circle presented plans for extending its limits and influence. The following suggestions were made: Full reports in county paper, the circle represented at teachers' institutes and normal classes; circulars sent to leading teachers and other professional men; superintendents requested to recommend the course to graduates of the public schools.

The pleasure to be derived from the contemplation of work well done should not be the least of motives in inspiring one to vigorous, thorough work. The delightful picture which the completed course of readings enabled one member of the Class of '91 to "hang upon memory's wall" is happily described in the following stanzas selected from a poem by Mrs. Mary A. Powers, read before the Olympians of Fairport, N. Y.:

Could I but wield the ready writer's pen
And trace these four years' battles o'er again,
And all their pleasant journeyings relate,
To reach the goal—Chautauqua's "Golden Gate"—

I'd tell how—as they climbed Olympus' height—
Truth, "hidden in a well," they brought to light;

Found keys that opened scientific locks,
And delved with Agassiz among the rocks;
Sailed over seas on fancy's airy wings,
Mingled with heroes, emperors, and kings;
In Academic groves, 'neath leafy trees,
Listened to Plato, and to Socrates,
Wandered with Jason for the "Golden Fleece,"
And sang, with Sappho, in the "Isles of Greece";

In Rome, encountered ghosts of long ago,
Cæsar, Mark Antony, and Cicero,
Saw Nero's torch her ancient shrines destroy,
And rode with Hector round the walls of Troy;
And soaring on o'er heavenly pathways wide,
The planets scanned with Servius for a guide;
Lingered amid old castles, wreathed in vine,
With German singers near the winding Rhine,
Where, charmed by scenes of legend and romance,
They fain would stay, but hastening on to France,
Laugh with Rabelais, and bid adieu to care
Under the magic spell of Molière;

Then coming over "Merrie England's" page,
Share, with Elizabeth, the "Golden Age";
In mystic courts, tread on enchanted ground
And sit with Arthur at his "Table Round,"
While knights in armor gather round their king,

And troubadours their deeds of valor sing.
With Alexander, they all foes subdue—
Conquer old worlds, and sigh with him for new,
Nor find in any land beneath the sun,
A grander hero than our Washington,
Or skies more fair, where'er their footsteps roam

Or hearts more true, than in this land of home.
Their bark rides safely every stormy gale,
Their watchword this, "There's no such word as fail."

THE Santa Marias of Emporia, Kansas, seem to have found the secret of success. They write that they often spend more than three hours at a session and still find the time too short. "We recite by written topics prepared by the secretary. Last year we wrote a large number of essays. This year we have a standing committee on reading who select the best of an author's work and assign to each member his work for the next meeting."

THE closing meeting with which the Accrescent Circle of Oswego completed the fourth year of its existence had almost the proportions of a "Commencement" exercise. The circle reports on that occasion quite a Commencement air, as seven members had finished the four years' course and were to graduate with the '91's. The host and hostess had their parlors beautifully decorated for the occasion. The graduates executed the entire literary program—opening with Chautauqua songs and prayer. The salutatory by the president, followed by the historian, the poet, the prophet, recitation, and music, closing with the valedictory. The president then called for two-minute speeches from all the other members. Amid much merriment the refreshment committee served

Poriferous Delicacy
Heliocentric Reflection
Relic of a Glacial Dairy
A Beverage from Lower Strata
H₂ CO₂
Argentum spoune

The menu cards had the class colors of the graduates and post-graduates of the circle tied in one corner, representing classes '91, '86, and '84. After a most delightful evening a committee of '92's were appointed to call a meeting for preliminary preparations to arrange for prompt beginning of next year's reading.

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES.

FOR 1891.

CHAUTAUQUA. At its eighteenth session **NEW YORK.** the Chautauqua Assembly was still giving the best indications of progress. It made necessary a repetition of the same report that has been given every year: there were more people present, more good things for them to enjoy, and more appreciation shown than ever before. This last fact has always been especially significant as it points directly to the permanency of the institution and to the secret of its success. It shows that Chautauqua is adapted to the people, that it answers to their higher aspirations, and in a reflex manner its constant improvement and development testify to a growth and elevation in the popular aspirations, which is the aim of all Chautauqua work.

The many improvements made upon the grounds insured the greater comfort and convenience of all in attendance. New buildings are the Arcade, College Hall, Presbyterian Headquarters, the *Assembly Herald* Office, the United Presbyterian Headquarters, and thirty new cottages. For next season it is announced that an electric railway will encircle the Lake, connecting the Assembly Grounds with the Erie Railway and Jamestown and Lakewood.

The opening of the season began a brilliant series of daily programs, whose interest was unabated till the close. So wide was the scope of these programs, so great the array of talent employed in carrying them out, and so many exercises were going on at once that a detailed description would be an almost endless task.

The platform presided over by Chancellor J. H. Vincent, assisted by the Vice-Chancellor, Mr. George E. Vincent, offered a fine study of the various degrees of all-around excellence in public address. Here were given rich cullings of genius and research, airy fancy and weighty fact. Wide liberty of thought and speech prevailed, and throughout the time a sacred religious influence was felt.

In connection with the series of admirable lecture courses on American History a new plan was put in practice with results that proved better than were expected. Written examinations covering each series were given, and prizes awarded for the best papers.

In regard to the schools, a careful estimate shows that in the College of Liberal Arts, Schools of the Bible, School of Physical Culture, Schools of Art, Music, Kindergarten work, I-Oct.

Photography, the Teachers' Retreat, the Sunday-school Normal, Intermediate, and Boys and Girls' Classes, there have been enrolled this season nearly three thousand students.

The College of Liberal Arts and the Teachers' Retreat began July 4 with exceedingly bright prospects. The opening day of these Summer Schools ended pleasantly in a students' reception at the Hotel Athenæum. Five new names have been added to the college faculty: Professors Frank F. Abbott, Thomas D. Seymour, William Hoover, James A. Woodburn, and Edward W. Bemis. In the faculty no less than twenty-five institutions of learning are represented by from one to five of the ablest members of their faculties. Yale sent five members, with Dr. Harper at their head, Johns Hopkins two, and the following one each: Hamline University, St. Paul; Protestant Episcopal Divinity School, Philadelphia; Vanderbilt University, Nashville; Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.; Hamilton Theological Seminary, Hamilton, N. Y.; University of Dakota, Vermillion, S. D.; Ottawa High School, Ottawa, Ill.; Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, N. Y.; University of Michigan, Ann Arbor; Chamberlain Institute, Randolph, N. Y.; Princeton Theological Seminary, Princeton, N. J.; Ohio University, Athens, O.; Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.; United Presbyterian Theological Seminary, Allegheny, Pa.; Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.; American Museum of Natural History, N. Y.; Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Ill.; University of Cincinnati, O.; Augustana Theological Seminary, Rock Island, Ill.; Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. This list simply represents the faculty of the College, and does not include any of the lecturers on historical, biographical, and literary topics.

Dr. W. R. Harper, president of the University of Chicago, and for many years principal of the Chautauqua College of Liberal Arts, has been appointed principal of the whole system of instruction by Bishop Vincent; Mr. George E. Vincent becomes vice-principal. Bishop Vincent of course continues his relations as chancellor.

At the Teachers' Retreat the attendance numbered two hundred and ninety-nine persons, an increase of thirty per cent over any other year. Efficient work was done in all departments. Col. Parker, who was in charge, says that the name ought to be changed to "Teachers' Advance."

An idea of the success of the Correspondence School may be gathered from the fact that while two years ago it had two hundred and thirty-seven enrolled students, it now has more than four hundred.

The Schools of Music include the best talent to be found in the country, and the large number of pupils betokens a wide appreciation of this fact.

The various children's departments were a source of delight alike to the little folks and their elders. Chautauqua abounds in effective plans and devices for the improvement and pleasure of children, which are calculated to give them wholesome views of life and prepare them for future usefulness. The people in charge are those who have the ability to wheel into the right line both mischievous restlessness and backward reserve.

Physical culture is fast gaining favor at Chautauqua, this year's list showing the names of more than a thousand who took instruction and one hundred and thirty graduates.

The School of Photography came in for a fair share of the general interest lately awakened in the art of photography, and while a majority of the students always have been amateurs, a goodly number of professionals pursued their studies here this season.

The Sunday-school Normal kept up its old reputation as a live department. It has for years been deep-rooted in the affections of Chautauquans, and the past season has strengthened the old bonds. The Boys and Girls' classes in Bible study were filled with zealous students. The Evangelical Alliance with its broadening and fraternizing influence was well represented.

At the Ministerial Convention many important subjects were submitted for discussion, among which "Pastoral Visitation" was treated with more than usual zest.

The Missionary Institute brought together leaders of all denominations from many fields and their conferences were most beneficial to those who were privileged to be in attendance. Highly interesting reports came from the Woman's Conference. Various phases of the missionary question were discussed, among them the power for good of the young people's missionary societies.

A gathering where brilliancy and zeal were used for a good purpose was the Woman's Club. Talented and experienced women here infused their helpfulness into the audience. Miss Grace Dodge nobly worked for the cause of the working girl and the tenement population. Mrs. Miller ably discussed the problem of getting church people into church work, and many op-

portune words were spoken by different members.

Great advance in grade and quality was noticeable in all C. L. S. C. work. The Round Table meetings, in which Dr. Hurlbut was the leading spirit, held the same high place in the popular esteem as always before, and their magnetic influence was felt by all in attendance.

Although unable to take quite as active a part as usual Bishop Vincent was present during nearly all the Assembly. He preached the Baccalaureate Sermon, and his vast attentive audience bore witness to the high regard in which the leader of the great C. L. S. C. movement is held.

Of all the special day observances, the beautiful symbolic service of Recognition Day is the favorite,—with its white-robed flower-girls, its arches and Golden Gate, its procession of eager graduates and post-graduates, with streaming banners and beautiful mottoes and emblems, its music, pealing of bells, speeches, and presentation of diplomas.

Mrs. Mary A. Livermore delivered the address which is published in full in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. It was one worthy the woman and the occasion. Of the great host of about four and a half thousands who received diplomas this year nearly five hundred passed the arches at Chautauqua.

August 24 was the last day and the Assembly drew to a close with great plans and hopes for the future.

ACTON PARK, THE annual session of Acton INDIANA. Park Assembly opened July 22 and closed August 10, being one of the most interesting, cultured, and literary sessions ever held on the Assembly grounds. Much credit is due to the Superintendent, the Rev. J. W. Dashiell, D.D.

The music was under the immediate supervision and control of Prof. and Mrs. A. Robertson, of U. S. Grant University.

Some of those who instructed and lectured in the Tabernacle were the Rev. Dr. Williamson, the Rev. Drs. Van Anda and Buchtel, Lieutenant Governor Chase, Bishop Joyce, Chaplain McCabe, the Rev. Dr. J. P. D. John, Dr. D. H. Moore, the Rev. Dr. Cranston, Drs. Sargeant, Ford, Dolph, Locke, Martin, and many others of ability and reputation.

The opening exercises of the Assembly consisted of a general love-feast interspersed with appropriate music by Prof. Robertson.

Recognition Day was held August 5, and it proved to be the great day of the Assembly and very important in many respects to the C. L. S. C. work. Exercises were opened in the Hall with

a masterly lecture by the Hon. Will Cumback. After the formal recognition services, the Rev. Dr. J. P. D. John delivered the address to the graduating class; it was learned, great, and good. At its close diplomas were delivered to three graduates.

Round Tables, Class Meetings, and Vesper Services, held under the direction of J. C. Pulse and the Rev. M. B. Hyde, were a source of great profit to all attending.

The Class of '95 was organized with a larger membership than any other class organized. The other classes were inspired with new zeal and enthusiasm and the C. L. S. C. work was greatly advanced at Acton Park.

BAY VIEW, THE animated and studious air **MICHIGAN.** pervading the annual Bay View Assembly indicates a good condition in the seven schools. The arrangement of the lectures to supplement some school study did not necessitate bookishness nor seem to detract from their popularity.

The roll of lecturers included such names as Mrs. Mountford, Prof. J. B. De Motte, Dr. J. H. Kellogg, Mrs. Zerelda Wallace, Mrs. Boise, the Rev. Russell H. Conwell, Dr. J. M. Buckley, Dr. M. S. Terry, Prof. Charles J. Little, Dr. J. F. Berry, Mr. H. R. Emsnett, an educated Indian, the Rev. Egerton R. Young, Dr. S. A. Steele, Mrs. Caroline B. Buell, who had charge of the W. C. T. U. School of Methods, Dr. S. L. Baldwin, conductor of the Missionary Congress, Marion Harland and Margaret E. Sangster, leading the Woman's Council, Dr. S. J. Palmer, Rev. Robert McIntyre, Dr. Cyrus Hamlin, Miss Mary E. Beedy, Miss Florence Baggarnie, Miss Ida Bentley, and others.

Prof. C. C. Case had a large chorus class, and the Jubilee Singers discoursed their thrilling melodies.

Miss Florence Baggarnie furnished an address on W. C. T. U. Day.

The religious element was strong at Bay View, the Bible being taught by such specialists as Dr. Buckley and Mrs. Kennedy; the Young Woman's Christian Association held a summer Bible school for its officers and members; and a beautiful Epworth Home, "the first practical and pretentious League summer headquarters," had been erected by the Michigan chapters of the Epworth League.

CONNECTICUT VALLEY, THE fifth session of the Connecticut Valley Assembly passed pleasantly at Laurel Park, July 8-17.

Prosperity attended the Board of Instruction throughout, favoring every department. On its list were Prof. J. H. Pillsbury, superintendent

of instruction and leader of Bible Normal class; Rev. G. H. Clarke, S. S. Normal class; Prof. R. G. Hibbard, teacher of elocution; Prof. G. C. Gow, musical director; Rev. G. H. Johnson, leader of Round Table; Miss Bertha F. Vella, children's class.

The orators included Dr. J. H. Mansfield, Miss Goldthwaite, the Rev. C. M. Melden, E. T. Bates, Dr. Frank Russell, Judge L. E. Hitchcock, Dr. D. Sherman, the Rev. F. T. Pomeroy, G. T. Fletcher, Dr. Robert Collyer, the Rev. James Grant, and the Rev. H. C. Hovey.

On the afternoon of July 16, the Recognition service was observed. The procession, preceded by children strewing flowers, passed under evergreen arches and to the Hall of Philosophy which the graduates entered through the Golden Gate. President G. H. Clarke gave the formal Recognition, after which the class poem was read and the company advanced to the Auditorium, where the address was given by the Rev. H. C. Farrar. Fifteen diplomas were presented.

HIRAM, THE Hiram Assembly closed an excellent session with an increase in attendance of forty per cent over last year. A chief point in their Assembly is class room work in the Normal Department. In this field Miss Maggie Umstead and Profs. Mertz and Freudley did very valuable work.

On Recognition Day the address of the Hon. W. I. Chamberlain was of marked importance. The Round Table in the afternoon, when short talks were given by Prof. Freudley and others, was very enjoyable.

IOWA, COLFAX, THE Iowa Chautauqua Assembly held its third annual session July 4-17. Having witnessed the purchase of the grounds and the building of the Auditorium the year closed with a great promotion for the Assembly, which was greatly owing to Dr. Hurlbut, who prepared the program.

General Gibson mastered the situation on National Day, and with Dr. A. J. Palmer made Grand Army Day forever bright in the memories of old soldiers; a journey through Switzerland was conducted by Dr. Davidson in his inimical way; general admiration was accorded to Jahu DeWitt Miller; the Hon. Cumback won the hearts of his brethren by his plea for "Husbands," and the good-will of the sisters by his attack on gossips—in other states; Mrs. Mountford's three lectures astonished and delighted the audiences; Dr. A. J. Hobbs and the Rev. C. C. Hanah met the expectations of the large congregations on the Sabbath; Dr. Young's talks on missionary life were highly appreciated; Mr. and Mrs. Frank Beard contributed much to the interest; Miss Kate F. Kimball

delighted everybody because her thorough work is so evidently for others.

Prof. and Mrs. Boyle made hosts of friends, and successfully conducted the chorus classes, presenting three fine concerts. In the last two the chorus was assisted by Miss Esther Silsby, Miss Rosenblatt, Mrs. Pray, and Mrs. Grace Frisbie-Ryan.

Miss Manning made a success of the Primary Department, besides being eminently helpful in C. L. S. C. work. Dr. Coxe brought the Normal Union class up in interest and numbers to a most encouraging standard.

As it should be, Recognition Day was the great day of the feast, thirteen receiving diplomas, most of which were adorned with seals.

The Chautauqua spirit was manifest in the large attendance, in hearty co-operation, and in the organization of the Iowa Chautauqua Branch of the C. L. S. C.

ISLAND PARK, The best session in the record of Island Park Assembly is its thirteenth, July 29-August 12. The chief promoters of the Assembly were Dr. N. B. C. Love and his untiring helper, the Rev. L. F. Naftzger.

Deep interest was shown in the C. L. S. C. There were twelve organized classes which did themselves credit. Dr. A. J. Fish conducted the Round Table. The Boys and Girls' Class was in charge of the Rev. J. E. Erwin. The Rev. F. M. Guild led the morning devotional meetings.

The program proved to be excellent. Among the speakers may be mentioned: Dr. D. H. Moore, Bishop J. W. Joyce, Jahu DeWitt Miller, Dr. J. P. D. John, Dr. M. C. Lockwood, Prof. J. W. Zeller, Robert McIntyre, Dr. C. C. McCabe, Dr. J. C. Hartzell, Dr. L. E. Prentiss, Dr. C. B. Stemen, Dr. S. F. Scovel, Gen. Samuel F. Hurst, Dr. Mary Allen, Mrs. C. B. Wells, Dr. J. O. Henderson, the Rev. B. A. Kemp, the Rev. W. C. Wade, the Rev. J. H. Fitzwater, and Miss Adeline Powell, the elocutionist, who was repeatedly encored.

An especial point was made of the music, which fully repaid all the pains taken. It was represented by the Fisk Jubilee Singers, the Smith Sisters' Quartet, Mrs. W. A. Willett, and several other soloists, the Otsego orchestra, and the chorus, all in charge of Prof. J. J. Jelley.

Some of the special days were National Day, Labor, Temperance, Young People's, Recognition, Grand Army, and Farmers' Day.

On Recognition Day the Oration was delivered by Dr. A. J. Fish and the diplomas presented to fourteen graduates by Dr. N. B. C. Love.

LAKESIDE, The fifteenth annual session of **OHIO.** this Assembly was better than any in its previous history. The attendance was

very large, the interest increasingly intense, and the results in every way encouraging to the management and profitable to the patrons. For the twelfth time the Rev. B. T. Vincent was superintendent, assisted this year by the Rev. E. Persons. All the departments were well managed.

The lecture platform was ably filled by the Rev. Drs. Talmage, Conwell, Moore, Crafts, Muller, McIntyre, Marley, Berry, Fish, and Palmer, Profs. Dickerman, Ford and De Motte, Dr. Reanny, Jahu DeWitt Miller, G. W. Edmunson, Judge Warnock, Leon H. Vincent, and others. The tariff question was considered on two enthusiastic days by Gov. Campbell and the Hon. Wm. McKinley; the Farmers' Alliance by Dr. Crawford. Ex-President Hayes was present. Marion Laurence, Esq., conducted the Sunday school and S. S. Congresses. The Jubilees rendered delightful song. Various reformatory agencies were well represented.

The C. L. S. C. has a great place in the plans of Lakeside. Round tables and vesper services were indispensable to the program, and were full of interest. On Recognition Day Chancellor W. F. McDowell gave a fine oration to a large class of graduates, who passed the arches and received their diplomas. A goodly number also presented their names and forwarded applications for membership of the Class of '95, and many more went home better informed about this great school for the people. Sermons by Bishop Malalien, Doctors Talmage, McDowell, Moore, Hale, and McAfee, gave blessing through the pulpit. Altogether Lakeside made a great stride forward in the session of 1891.

LANGDON, The second meeting of **NORTH DAKOTA,** the Annual Chautauqua Assembly of North Dakota was held in Bathgate (the first session having met at Langdon), commencing Wednesday afternoon, July 15th, and closing the Friday evening following. The attendance was much larger than last year and the future of the young association seems hopeful.

The speakers of the platform were Mr. Bradley, N. C. Young, Prof. P. P. Kennedy, Mrs. Burrows, Mrs. McKinny, Mrs. McPhail, the Rev. D. C. Irwin, Mrs. Clarke, Prof. Babcock, Mrs. Fullerton, Mrs. Truax, Mrs. Mahon, Mrs. Florence Brennan.

Music was contributed by Mrs. Kermott, Messrs. Trenholme, Witmer, Brown, Mr. and Mrs. Reynolds, Mr. and Mrs. Bowen, and the Sunflower Chorus.

LAKE TAHOE, The very brief report received from the Lake Tahoe Assembly is of a most encouraging nature. Without giving details regarding the special

features of the occasion, it states the results to be such that the permanent location of the institution has been decided upon and that improvements toward securing that end are now being carried forward. The management will make every effort to advance the Chautauqua interests.

MONONA LAKE, THE Monona Lake Assembly has just closed the most successful session in all its history. Dr. J. A. Worden as Conductor and Normal Instructor performed his part with great tact and ability. Mrs. Wilbur F. Crafts in charge of the Primary work, instructed the young, and proved herself very helpful to the primary teachers. Morning prayer-meetings under the leadership of Drs. Worden and Hurlbut were largely attended and a devotional spirit was developed that seemed to pervade the whole camp.

Dr. H. R. Palmer conducted the music to the great gratification of all present.

The platform was ably provided for, Mrs. Mountford, General George Sheridan, Dr. Grandian, Mrs. Sangster, Mrs. Terhune, Russell H. Conwell, Senator John J. Ingalls, Dr. A. J. Palmer, and Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, being the brightest stars. All were greeted by large and enthusiastic audiences.

Chautauqua's interests were well cared for. Principal Hurlbut was present four days, and was given instruction to "boom" the C. L. S. C. Recognition Day was fair and passed off delightfully, with procession, flower girls, Recognition of the Class of '91, passing the gate, etc., followed by a grand address from Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, who conferred upon forty-five graduates the diplomas, some of which bore thirteen seals.

The Round Table hours were most delightful, and very profitable; half-hour lectures were given by Principal Hurlbut, Dr. H. R. Palmer, the Rev. W. H. Crafts, the Rev. Mr. Evans, and a Shaksperian representation by Mrs. Motte.

The new headquarters was filled daily with "anxious inquirers." Seventy enrolled themselves as members of the Class of 1895.

MOUNTAIN LAKE PARK, THE Mountain Maryland. Chautauqua held its tenth annual session August 4-18 and enjoyed the most prosperous season in its history. The receipts were thirty per cent in advance of any former year. The patrons of the Assembly represented twenty-five of the states of the Union. The Mountain Chautauqua is one of the Assemblies which is certain to have a national reputation. Its rare altitude, its majestic scenery, its rich programs, its splendid railroad facilities, will attract multitudes of people from all quarters of the country.

During the Assembly just closed great enthusiasm prevailed, and many lots were sold and plans put into operation for the erection of a number of new cottages.

The program this year was unusually strong, including such names as Willits, Nourse, Miller, Lockwood, Ambrose, Beard, Gibson, Green, Vincent, and others equally well known. Dr. W. L. Davidson as Superintendent of Instruction had complete charge of the program. To his skillful management and unbounded enthusiasm can the success be largely attributed. There was not a single break in the program from first to last. The Rev. C. W. Baldwin, the President of the Association, rendered valuable service. Class work along a dozen lines was successfully carried out. Dean A. A. Wright made very popular his Bible expositions and Ministers' Institute. Recognition Day was a great occasion. Eight C. L. S. C. readers passed to their graduation.

C. L. S. C. work was kept to the front and many new recruits enlisted for the Class of '95.

The Woman's Club conducted by Mrs. Frank Beard, the Tourist Conferences led by Prof. W. H. Dana, and the talks on physiology by Dr. M. D. Hatfield at the C. L. S. C. Round Tables, were as unique as they were successful.

The musical features were many and brilliant. Prof. W. S. Weeden as chorus director proved to be the right man. A new departure in assembly work was the study and presentation by the chorus of the cantata of Queen Esther in costume. It proved a great success, attracting the largest audience ever seen at the Park.

The future of the Mountain Chautauqua never looked brighter. Next year a summer school, lasting one month, with first-class instructors along many important lines of study, is in contemplation.

MOUNTAIN GROVE, THE sixth session of PENNSYLVANIA. the Mountain Grove Chautauqua Assembly was held during the second week in August, and under the efficient management of Mr. Myron I. Low, President of the Assembly, assisted by many earnest workers. It was indeed an enjoyable season. Not only was it appreciated by Chautauquans, but all in the tented grove seemed to catch the spirit of enthusiasm.

Special days during the session were Temperance Day, Epworth League Day, and Sunday-school Day.

Recognition Day of the C. L. S. C., so dear to true Chautauquans, dawned bright and beautiful August 8. The new Golden Gate just beyond the evergreen arch, was an object of interest and favorable comment. Here a special service

was held, consisting of responsive reading, music, and the reading of a poem, written by Mrs. H. G. Jayne, dedicating the Golden Gate. Prof. E. K. Richardson gave the address of the day.

Letters of greeting from Dr. Jesse I. Hurlbut, Bishop John H. Vincent, and Dr. Edward E. Hale were read, after which the diplomas were conferred by Mr. M. I. Low to the graduating class. A Round Table and a Camp-fire service held in the evening closed the exercises.

NEW ENGLAND, THE New Eng-
SOUTH FRAMINGHAM, land Chautauqua
MASSACHUSETTS. and Sunday-school
Assembly closed its twelfth session, of ten days, July 24th. New features of the Assembly were Demorest Gold Medal Prize Contest, gymnastic class in the Ling Swedish system, the purchase of a peal of bells, and the incorporation into the Framingham Normal Union, of the Young People's and the Primary Teachers' Classes. This change was gladly welcomed. The Class Meetings and Round Tables of the C. L. S. C. were never more spirited. The platform lectures were exceptionally good, notably those of Dr. J. B. Thomas, the Hon. G. M. Towle, and President Andrews.

The Recognition Day address was delivered by President Gates, of Amherst.

Much interest was shown in the educational work of the Assembly, and the prospects for the future are bright.

NEW RICHMOND, THE third annual ses-
OHIO. sion of this Chautauqua

Assembly was held July 22-August 5, 1891. New Richmond is a beautiful place for such a meeting, on the right bank of the Ohio River, and just one hour's ride from Cincinnati. The day sessions were held in the splendid Public Park and a commodious Opera Hall received the evening sessions.

The program was good and the speakers prompt.

The Chautauqua Normal Union and the C. L. S. C. Round Table were in charge of the Rev. J. W. Geiger, who proved to be the right man for the place. Miss Eleanor P. Allen presided over the Woman's Council, and won hosts of friends.

The music was under the direction of Prof. J. H. Stauffer. Three grand concerts were given, the last of which was the cantata, "David the Shepherd Boy," presented in full costume to a crowded house.

Lectures were delivered by Prof. E. Warren Clark, the Rev. J. W. Geiger, Jahu DeWitt Miller, the Rev. Dr. A. A. Willits, Thos. J. Dodd, D.D., the Rev. Dr. M. C. Lockwood, Col. L. F.

Copeland, Jas. Clement Ambrose, Col. Russell H. Conwell, Dr. Robert Nourse, Chas. F. Underhill, and Frank Beard.

The Class of '95 promises to be larger than former classes.

OCEAN CITY, THE fourth annual session of
NEW JERSEY. the Chautauqua Assembly of Ocean City was held August 6 and 7. From the opening exercises until the close, everything met the expectations of its leaders. Excellent music was a noticeable feature.

The Camp-fire service with the lighting of fires by the vestals, was the chief attraction of Thursday evening, followed by the reading of a local circle magazine, edited by Mrs. I. H. Swain, a recitation by Miss Emma Towlin, and a tenor solo by Mr. Frank Riggins.

The Round Tables were conducted in a conversational way without formality or restraint, and formed a congenial retreat for all.

On Recognition Day the floral decorations, the arches, Golden Gate, all aided in endearing to Chautauquans the pleasant auditorium by the sea. Dr. D. W. Bartine delivered an impressive address before the graduates, after which their diplomas were presented.

The Rev. C. B. Ogden entertained the audience both days with his stories in chalk. A letter from Bishop J. H. Vincent, and one from the Rev. J. S. Parker were read; Chautauqua salutes were given; solos were rendered by the Misses Kendrick and Wade. The Friday evening lecture, delivered by Dr. A. B. Richardson, elicited much praise.

OCEAN GROVE, THE Seventh Annual Ses-
NEW JERSEY. sion of the Ocean Grove Assembly held July 11-22 was one of the most memorable of the series held year by year at this far-famed resort. Had the health of Bishop Vincent permitted him to keep his engagement for Recognition Day—July 22, the excellent program would have been carried out without a break.

The Board of Instruction consisted again this year of the Rev. B. B. Loomis, Ph.D., Superintendent of Instruction; the Rev. J. F. Clymer, D.D., Normal Instructor; Prof. J. R. Swaney, Musical Director; Mrs. B. B. Loomis, Boys and Girls' Department; Mrs. J. R. Swaney, Organist, and Mrs. M. S. Loomis, Pianist. The Normal work was carried on in three grades as formerly, and in addition the Rev. George K. Morris, D.D., gave a series of lectures and lessons on "Sacred Oratory" which were very highly appreciated. Philip Phillips gave three of his entertainments, and the annual concert in charge of Prof. J. R. Swaney was enjoyed by an audience of five thousand people, who

expressed their delight by adopting a series of complimentary resolutions at the close of the entertainment.

One evening was given to a Demorest Gold Medal contest, in which much enthusiasm was manifested and a large amount of Prohibition truth forcefully presented.

Lectures and sermons were delivered by the Rev. O. A. Brown, D.D., the Rev. J. H. Coleman, D.D., W. H. Stokes, Esq., the Rev. John Handley, and the Rev. R. R. Pardington, D.D., the last named gentleman giving the Recognition address in the absence of Chancellor Vincent.

The usual commencement march to the sea was enjoyed and the graduates in the various departments, twenty-two in the C. L. S. C., nine in the Normal Class, and forty post-graduate courses, received their diplomas from the hand of President E. H. Stokes, D.D.

The evening was devoted to a general reception in the spacious parlors of the Arlington Hotel and the Assembly closed with a magnificent display of fireworks witnessed by ten thousand people at the beach.

OCEAN PARK, The eleventh annual session **MAINE,** of this Assembly opened July 12, continuing till August 12. The grade and character of the meetings have never been surpassed. Typical New England enthusiasm was manifest in the various departments.

The first week was devoted mainly to Bible study and evangelistic training. These services gave a spiritual uplift and quickening that were felt in all the meetings that followed.

The Summer School and C. L. S. C. work continued July 21—August 1 with most gratifying results. Among the able instructors were the Revs. J. M. Lowden, W. J. Twort, and Miss N. I. Aageson, in the A. N. U. Department; Mrs. A. B. Webber, who conducted the Mission Normal Class; Prof. I. F. Frisbee, who presided over the School of Oratory; Prof. A. T. Briggs, assisted by Mrs. M. D. Shepard and Miss Ada L. Briggs, conducted the Musical Department.

The platform talent was of high order and greatly appreciated. Among the noted speakers were the Revs. R. S. MacArthur, D.D., L. T. Townsend, D.D., C. F. Tenney, D.D., G. H. Ball, D.D., M. Summerbell, D.D., and Mrs. E. S. Burlingame. Besides a large and well trained chorus there were quartets, soloists and elocutionists of ability and reputation to assist in concerts and entertainments. A society of the Hall in the Grove was organized, officers chosen, and plans made for post-graduate work, that promise well for the future.

July 30, Recognition Day, was the great C. L. S. C. day of the entire history of the As-

sembly. Forty-six graduates from various states passed the beautifully decorated gates, amid the flutter of handkerchiefs and over a path strewn with fragrant flowers to receive their diplomas. Many of these were adorned with an unusually large number of seals. Dr. MacArthur, who delivered the address, inspired the attentive listeners to yet greater achievements.

From July 31 to August 4 the women put in a vast amount of very helpful and highly instructive work, of which the Assembly was justly proud.

It is safe to say that Chautauqua never before had so strong a hold upon this Assembly. Much credit is due to the Rev. E. W. Porter, who from the beginning has labored indefatigably for the success of the Assembly.

PIASA BLUFFS, JULY 30 was the opening **ILLINOIS.** day of the third session of Piasa Bluffs Chautauqua Assembly, which continued until August 19. The program was far superior to any ever before presented here. The grounds had been improved, and a new hotel, costing about \$3,500, had been erected, besides several cottages. Dr. Frank Lenig, of St. Louis, conducted the C. L. S. C. work. Dr. J. C. W. Cox of Washington, Iowa, again had the charge of the Sunday-school Normal Instruction.

There were fifty Chautauquans enrolled, seven for the Class of 1895; all were deeply interested and good work was accomplished. The great days were the W. C. T. U. Missionary Day, Music Day, and Recognition Day, August 13. On the last date, five graduates marched through the Golden Gate, this being the largest class ever graduated at Piasa Bluffs. Dr. Fry gave the Recognition address; Dr. Lenig presented the diplomas. Prizes were presented for the best examination on the studies. The day closed with a banquet at the hotel, a Camp-fire service, and a fine display of fireworks.

RIDGEVIEW, THE Ridgeview Assembly **PENNSYLVANIA,** closed its second session, lasting from July 30 to August 11, with results most satisfactory to all interested in it. The first Recognition Day ever observed upon the grounds was of such a character as to remove all doubt concerning this exercise; the C. L. S. C. has amply demonstrated its ability to take care of its part of the Assembly and henceforth is to be a prominent factor in every session.

The W. C. T. U. held enthusiastic and interesting meetings which roused in many others a desire to help the work. Special days during the session were Temperance Day, Missionary Day, Christian Endeavor and Epworth League Day, National Day, and Children's Day.

Timely and effective lectures were given by

the Rev. J. A. Brandon, Dr. E. M. Wood, the Rev. J. B. Koehne, the Rev. J. C. Oliver, the Rev. G. D. Crissman, Mrs. W. B. Rhoads, Dr. C. B. Wakefield, the Rev. W. C. Weaver, the Rev. C. H. Fitzwilliams, P. H. Gaither, A. M. Hammers, Dr. D. H. Wheeler, Dr. D. H. Muller.

ROUND LAKE, OPENING Day at this large **NEW YORK.** and popular Assembly occurred as announced, on July 27. The first exercise was an eloquent address by Bishop Newman. Work in all the departments was organized on the following day. Dr. H. C. Farrar, the Superintendent of Instruction, took charge of the post-graduate class, Mrs. C. W. Jones of the primary department, the Rev. P. P. Field of the school of oratory, the Rev. B. B. Loomis of the Normal class, the Rev. W. H. Groat of the Junior class, Dr. Strong of the Hebrew and Greek classes; the Ministers' Institute was under the joint direction of Dr. Buttz and Bishop Newman. Arrangements were effected during the session for a permanent annual Ministers' Institute, with such teachers as Bishops Newman and Foster, Drs. Butt and Strong.

Recognition Day, August 13, was observed with all of its usual ceremonies. No special account of the exercises has been forwarded.

Among the lecturers during the season, besides those who have already been mentioned as leaders, are noted the names of Chancellor Sims, Dr. J. E. King, Dr. J. Coleman.

SAN MARCOS, THE San Marcos Chautauqua **TEXAS.** closed July 22 after a session of twenty-nine days. The exercises were largely attended from first to last, and the program was the best ever rendered at this place. The prominent speakers were Eli Perkins, Sam Jones, M. C. Lockwood, and Robert Nourse; many others spoke equally well and were gladly listened to.

The Assembly more than cleared expenses, besides which \$1,250 were raised for a Hall of Philosophy and making some improvements. The Board has decided to build a hotel, which is very much needed, and the committees with much assurance of success, are taking measures to obtain the money.

More interest has been manifested than ever before. Thirty persons have decided to begin the C. L. S. C. course.

SEASIDE, In the absence of any official **NEW JERSEY.** report it is only a very meager general account that is gathered concerning the Seaside Assembly. Its eighth session is described as a remarkably brilliant one. It was most fortunate in the choice of its officers and directors who greatly furthered all the in-

terests of the undertaking. Enthusiastic specialists were placed in charge of the different departments, and under each the work reached a high standard of excellence. Two of the most popular departments, those of the School of Expression and the School of Art, were led by women, the former by Madame Alberti, the latter by Madame S. E. Le Prince.

A special day of the season was Agassiz Day. All chapters of the Agassiz Association had been invited to be present, and lectures were given by Dr. MacLoskie, the Rev. J. E. Peters, Profs. Miller and Best.

Prominent among the long list of speakers occupying the lecture platform were James Clement Ambrose, Prof. M. M. Miller, Prof. Hamilton Garland, Sylvester Barter.

The exercises of Recognition Day, August 27, formed the closing feature of the season. Addresses were made by Dean A. A. Wright and Pres. G. C. Maddock. The class poem was read by Miss Marie Dacie. A grand concert in the evening closed the eventful day.

WARSAW, THE second session of the Spring **INDIANA.** Fountain Park Assembly, which lasted from July 15 to August 13, was one of very great interest and profit throughout. Its future is assured; it is to become one of the leading Chautauquas. The Messrs. Beyer Brothers are the proprietors of the beautiful grounds, and in conjunction with the Rev. D. C. Woolpert, M.D., D.D., President of the Assembly, they made the entire exercises of the recent session of great interest and value to the public.

The platform program included such men as the Hon. Geo. W. Bain, the Rev. J. P. D. John, D.D., LL.D., Bishop Weaver, D.D., Chaplain McCabe, D.D., Jahu DeWitt Miller, D.D., Robert McIntyre, D.D., Mrs. J. Ellen Foster, Dr. Petts, Bishop Joyce, D.D., LL.D., Dr. Berry, Dr. Moore, and many others of national reputation.

The Assembly schools were under capable and efficient teachers and were well patronized.

The managers expect to enlarge the department of Assembly work; for next year one new department has already been arranged for, a school for the study of Hebrew and New Testament Greek.

Arrangements have been made already for Recognition Day next year, as there will be quite a large number of graduates.

WEATHERFORD, A NEW Assembly at **TEXAS.** Weatherford, held July 1-8, gives fair promise for the future.

The Rev. Piercy was made manager of the grounds, which had been well prepared to meet the requirements of the occasion.

Good encampment music was abundantly provided by the three leaders, Prof. Eckhart in charge of all the classical music, the Rev. and Mrs. H. C. Lincoln of the Sunday-school music, and the Rev. W. B. Preston of the hymn singing.

A number of popular lectures were given by the best obtainable talent on subjects relative to the principal features of the Assembly, which were the Ministers' Class, the Woman's Class, the Sunday-school Normal, advanced and primary, and Bible study.

As the first year's exercises were rather in the line of an encampment than of a Chautauqua Assembly there were no special days and no Recognition Day, but preparations are making so that in the future this new Assembly will wheel into line and run in harmony with all similar institutions.

WEIRS, At the fifth annual session of the Weirs Assembly the following speakers addressed the audiences from the popular platform: The Rev. M. B. V. Knox, Mrs. N. H. Knox, the Rev. F. E. White, the Rev. C. W. Bradlee, the Rev. J. K. Ewer, Mr. A. C. Austin, the Rev. W. A. Rice, the Rev. N. T. Whitaker, the Hon. E. P. Jewell, Dr. C. C. Rounds.

During the four days' session there were daily Vesper Services and Round Tables.

The exercises on Recognition Day, July 23, were of a delightful character. Little girls scattered flowers along the path over which the graduates marched to the Golden Gate. Arrived at the Hall of Philosophy, the Class of '91 was welcomed to the higher realms of Chautauqua by the President of the Assembly, the Rev. W. H. Hutchins. Succeeding this Recognition came the address of the day, delivered by Dr. J. H. Willey. At its close diplomas were given to the eighteen graduates. Thus closed the most notable day of this satisfactory and encouraging session of the Assembly.

WILLIAMS GROVE, PENNSYLVANIA, The program for 1891 was more elaborate and better executed than any in the years past. The special days were Temperance, Children's, Educational, and C. L. S. C. days. President Means reports the financial success of the Assembly as ahead of other years.

The lecturers were Joseph Cook, Drs. George F. Hays, C. N. Sims, Joel Swarte, James Morrow, W. F. Davidson, J. T. Meloy, John H. Hector, the Rev. Anna Shaw, and Peter Von Finklestein Mamreov.

Miss Susan P. Pollock had the Kindergarten work, and the Rev. R. H. Gilbert the Children's Hour.

The Recognition Day exercises were of the first order. Drs. Sims, J. T. Leak, W. L. Davidson, the Rev. George S. Chambers, and the Rev. H. C. Pardoe made addresses appropriate to the occasion. Fifteen persons were graduated, the diplomas being conferred by the Rev. Mr. Pardoe. Marshal Thomas S. Wilcox had the procession well in hand, which had grown considerably since 1887; the Golden Gate was well guarded while the music and the flower girls gave additional zest to the occasion.

Miss Jennie W. Brandon, the Secretary of the Hall in the Grove, was diligent in the distribution of the literature from headquarters. The C. L. S. C. cause is on the upward grade and the influences of the circles expanding with the years.

WINFIELD, KANSAS. The Winfield Assembly has grown to be one of the most flourishing and popular of the whole sisterhood of Chautauquas. During the recent session every department of Normal, C. L. S. C., Primary Teachers', Mothers', Boys and Girls' meetings for instruction and conference, were fully provided for. A School of Pedagogy and a Ministerial Institute were conducted daily, under the direction, respectively, of Professor J. H. Hayes and the Rev. J. C. Miller. The general superintendency was in the hands of the Rev. B. T. Vincent, who, assisted by Professor A. Gridley and Mesdames Vincent and Gridley, conducted the various classes of young and old people.

The lecture course was one of rare interest and value. The names of Sam Jones, Sam Small, Drs. Tupper, Willets, G. W. Miller, Nourse, McIntyre, Professors E. E. White, Dinsmore, Schuyler, the Hon. G. W. Winans, Judge Horton, and others, are sufficient to show the character of the entertainment.

The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle has a large and warm place in the hearts of the people of that region. Round Tables were held and were fruitful of good. The Recognition Day services on June 30 were full of enthusiasm. A goodly number of the class of '91 received their diplomas there. The oration on the occasion was delivered by the Rev. G. W. Miller, D.D., of Kansas City. Altogether Winfield has done and is to do great good in the "Assembly movement."

REPORTS of eleven Assemblies appeared in the September number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN; and twenty-eight more are reported in this impression. At the present writing the remainder, out of the list of nearly sixty, have not been heard from.

THE LIBRARY TABLE.

MY BROOK.

It was far up the valley we first plighted troth,
When the hours were so many, the duties so few;

Earth's burthen weighs wearily now on us both—
But I've not forgotten those dear days; have you?

Ah, that was so long ago! Ages, it seems,
And, now I return sad with life and its lore,
Will they flee my gray presence, the light-footed dreams,
And Will-o'-wisp light me his lantern no more?

As the Moors in their exile the keys treasured still

Of their castles in Spain, so have I; and no fear
But the doors will fly open, whenever we will,
To the prime of the Past and the sweet of the year.*—*James Russell Lowell.*

A NATIONAL NAME.

WE want a NATIONAL NAME. We want it poetically, and we want it politically. With the poetical necessity of the case I shall not trouble myself. I leave it to our poets to tell how they manage to steer that collocation of words, "The United States of North America," down the swelling tide of song, and to float the whole raft out upon the sea of heroic poesy. I am now speaking of the mere purposes of common life. How is a citizen of this republic to designate himself? As an American? There are two Americas, each subdivided into various empires, rapidly rising in importance. As a citizen of the United States? It is a clumsy, lumbering title; yet still it is not distinctive; for we have now the United States of Central America; and heaven knows how many "United States" may spring up under the Proteus changes of Spanish America.

This may appear a matter of small concernment; but any one that has traveled in foreign countries must be conscious of the embarrassment and circumlocution sometimes occasioned by the want of a perfectly distinct and explicit national appellation. In France, when I have announced myself as an American, I have been supposed to belong to one of the French colonies; in Spain, to be from Mexico, or Peru, or some other Spanish-American country. Re-

peatedly have I found myself involved in a long geographical and political definition of my national identity.

Now, sir, meaning no disrespect to any of our co-heirs of this great quarter of the world, I am for none of this coparceny in a name that is to mingle us up with the riff-raff colonies and off-sets of every nation of Europe. The title of American may serve to tell the quarter of the world to which I belong, the same as a Frenchman or an Englishman may call himself a European; but I want my own peculiar national name to rally under. I want an appellation that shall tell at once, and in a way not to be mistaken, that I belong to this very portion of America, geographical and political, to which it is my pride and happiness to belong.

We have it in our power to furnish ourselves with such a national appellation; from one of the grand and eternal features of our country; from that noble chain of mountains which formed its backbone, and ran through the "old confederacy," when it first declared our national independence. I allude to the Appalachian or Alleghany Mountains. We might do this without any very inconvenient change in our present titles. We might still use the phrase, "The United States," substituting Appalachia or Alleghania (I should prefer the latter), in place of America. The title of Appalachian or Alleghanian would still announce us as Americans, but would specify us as citizens of the "Great Republic."—*Washington Irving.*

AN EXAMPLE OF PERSEVERANCE.

THE following incident, although it rests only on tradition in families of the name of Bruce, is rendered probable by the manners of the times. After receiving the last unpleasant intelligence from Scotland, Bruce was lying one morning on his wretched bed, and deliberating with himself whether he would not better resign all thoughts of again attempting to make good his rights to the Scottish crown, and, dismissing his followers, transport himself and his brothers to the Holy Land and spend the rest of his life in fighting against the Saracens. But then, on the other hand, he thought it would be both criminal and cowardly to give up his attempts to restore freedom to Scotland while there yet remained the least chance of his being successful in an undertaking which he rightly considered,

*Selected from the last poem published by Mr. Lowell.

was much more his duty than to drive the infidels out of Palestine, though the superstition of his age might think otherwise.

While he was divided betwixt these reflections and doubtful of what he should do, Bruce was looking upward to the roof of the cabin in which he lay; and his eye was attracted by a spider, which, hanging at the end of a long thread of its own spinning, was endeavoring, as is the fashion of that creature, to swing itself from one beam in the roof to another, for the purpose of fixing the line on which it meant to stretch its web. The insect made the attempt again and again without success; and at length Bruce counted that it had tried to carry its point six times and been as often unable to do so. It came into his head that he had himself fought just six battles against the English and their allies, and that the poor persevering spider was exactly in the same situation with himself, having made as many trials and been as often disappointed in what it aimed at. "Now," thought Bruce, "as I have no means of knowing what is best to be done, I will be guided by the luck which shall attend this spider. If the insect shall make another effort to fix its thread and shall be successful, I will venture a seventh time to try my fortune in Scotland; but if the spider shall fail I will go to the wars in Palestine, and never return to my native country more."

While Bruce was forming this resolution, the spider made another exertion with all the force it could muster, and fairly succeeded in fastening its thread to the beam which it had so often in vain attempted to reach. Bruce seeing the success of the spider, resolved to try his own fortune; and as he had never before gained a victory, so he never afterward sustained any considerable or decisive check or defeat. I have often met with people of the name of Bruce so completely persuaded of the truth of this story that they would not on any account kill the spider; because it was that insect which had shown the example of perseverance, and given a signal of good luck to their great namesake.
—Walter Scott.

THE SPECULATORS.

THE night was stormy and dark, The town was shut up in sleep; Only those were abroad who were out on a lark, Or those who'd no beds to keep.

Two gents of dismal mien, And dank and greasy rage, Came out of a shop for gin, Swagging over the flags.

Was I sober or awake? Could I believe my

ears? Those dismal beggars spake Of nothing but railroad shares.

"I wrote for twenty," says Jim, "But they wouldn't give me one"; His comrade straight rebuked him, For the folly he had done:

"O, Jim, you are unawares Of the ways of this bad town; I always write for five hundred shares, And *then* they put me down."

Their talk did me perplex, All night I tumbled and tost, And thought of railroad specs, And how money was won and lost.

"Bless railroads everywhere," I said, "and bless the world's advance; For never a beggar need now despair, And every rogue has a chance."
—W. M. Thackeray.

MISS FLITE IN THE COURT OF CHANCERY.

THIS is the Court of Chancery; which has its decaying houses and its blighted lands in every shire; which has its worn-out lunatic in every mad-house, and its dead in every church-yard. Standing on a seat at the side of the hall, the better to peer into the curtained sanctuary, is a little mad old woman in a squeezed bonnet, who is always in court, from its sitting to its rising, and always expecting some incomprehensible judgment to be given in her favor. Some say she really is, or was, a party to a suit; but no one knows for certain, because no one cares. She carries some small litter in a reticule which she calls her documents. . . . She lived at the top of the house, in a pretty large room, from which she had a glimpse of the roof of Lincoln's Inn Hall. This seems to have been her principal inducement, originally, for taking up her residence there. She could look at it, she said, in the night; especially in the moonshine. Her room was clean but very bare. I noticed the scantiest necessities in the way of furniture; a few old prints from books of chancellors and barristers, wafered against the wall; and some half dozen reticules and work-bags, "containing documents," as she informed us. There were neither coal nor ashes in the grate, and I saw no article of clothing anywhere, nor any kind of food. She partly drew aside the curtain of the long low garret window, and called attention to a number of bird-cages hanging there; some containing several birds. There were larks, linnets, and goldfinches—I should think at least twenty. "I began to keep the little creatures," she said, "with the intention of restoring them to liberty. Ye-es! They die in prison, though. Their lives, poor silly things, are so short in comparison with Chancery proceedings, that one by one, the whole collection

has died over and over again. I doubt, do you know, whether one of these, though they are all so young, will live to be free! Very mortifying, is it not?"

"Indeed," she pursued, "I positively doubt sometimes, I do assure you, whether while matters are still unsettled, and the sixth or Great Seal still prevails, I may not one day be found lying stark and senseless here, as I have found so many birds!"

Miss Flite was so very chatty and happy, that I thought I would lead her to her own history as she was always pleased to talk about herself. I replied, "You have attended on the Lord Chancellor many years, Miss Flite?"

"Oh many, many years, my dear. But I expect a judgment shortly."

There was an anxiety even in her hopefulness, that made me doubtful if I had done right in approaching the subject. I thought I would say no more about it.

"My father expected a judgment," said Miss Flite. "My brother. My sister. They all expected a judgment. The same that I expect."

"They are all——"

"Ye-es, dead, of course, my dear," she said.

"Would it not be wiser," said I, "to expect this judgment no more?"

"Why, my dear," she answered promptly, "of course it would! But" she went on, in her mysterious way, "there's a dreadful attraction in the place. You *can't* leave it. And you must expect."

"What does it do, do you think?" I mildly asked her.

"It draws people on, my dear. Draws peace out of them. Sense out of them. Good looks out of them. Good qualities out of them. I have felt them drawing my rest away in the night. Cold and glittering devils. Let me see," said she. "I'll tell you my own case. Before they ever drew me—before I had ever seen them, I and my sister worked at tambour work. Our father and our brother had a builder's business. We all lived together. Very respectable, my dear! First, our father was drawn slowly. Home was drawn with him. In a few years he was a fierce, sour, angry bankrupt, without a kind word or a kind look for any one. He had been so different. He was drawn to a debtor's prison. There he died. Then our brother was swiftly drawn to drunkenness and rags and death. Then my sister was drawn. Hush! Never ask to what! Then I was ill, and in misery, and heard, as I had often heard before, that this was all the work of Chancery. When I got better, I went to look at the Monster, and then I found out how it was and I was drawn to stay there."

Having got over her short narrative, in the delivery of which she had spoken in a low, strained voice, as if the shock were fresh upon her, she gradually resumed her usual air of amiable importance.—*Arranged from Dickens' "Bleak House."*

OCTOBER.

Through golden noons and purple eves and
shadows cool and tender,
From scenes of tranquil happiness and dreams
of deep delight,
October like a princess in her Oriental splendor,
Comes down the valley singing with her retinue
of light.

O crimson days and golden! O wealth of garnet
treasure!

O vintages whose presses pour the royal wine of
life!

Give joy, and peace, and plenty in the largest
of your measure,

For the coming days are dreary days of turmoil
and of strife.*

—*Mrs. Katharine Margaret Sherwood.*

MADAME MOHL.

SHE was as free from personal vanity as an infant. Sometimes, when calling at fine houses for the first time, she was mistaken by the servants for a poor woman come to ask for something. These mistakes, far from offending, amused her exceedingly, and she used to relate them with great glee to her friends. She retained to her ninety-third year the fashion of her youth of having her dress cut open in the front, and of wearing little curls all over her forehead. This head-gear had never in her youngest days been a pattern of neatness, but in later years it had degenerated into the wildest tangle.

M. Guizot used to say that Madame Mohl and his little Scotch terrier had the same *coiffure*, for they both wore their hair in the same style. She suggested the same comparison to many.

"Never," says Mrs. Prestwich, "shall I forget my first sight of her, her fuzz of curls hung down over her eyes, making her look exactly like a sagacious little Skye terrier that had been out in a gale of wind." "That highly intelligent, vigorous Skye terrier," Mr. Grant Duff calls her.

Madame Mohl never committed the extravagance of buying proper curl-paper, but took any

*Through the Year with the Poets. Boston: D. Lothrop and Company.

odds and ends of colored circulars, notes, newspapers, etc., that came to hand; and the result was a Medusa-like head, bristling all over with little snakes of divers colors. She would present herself thus adorned before any visitor who chanced to call before the snakes were uncoiled. The effect was startling on some persons; but she was always serenely unconscious of this, or seemed to be so.

"She would come out in wonderful get-ups, a skirt of one color and a jacket of another, with a shabby nightcap stuck on the top of a bush of curl-papers; altogether the most amazing figure that ever you beheld out of a pantomime," a friend of the, family said, but added "there was a kind of coquetry in this defiance of coquetry." Englishmen and Germans were amused by these eccentricities; but Frenchmen, although they overlooked them on the score of her nationality, never quite forgave Madame Mohl for being something of a caricature.

In strange contradiction with this disregard of her personal appearance was her sensitiveness on the subject of her age. She could not bear to have it mentioned, and was always on the *qui vive* to conceal it.

Mérimée, M. Mohl's *témoin* at their marriage, used to tell a story of her answering the mayor when he asked her age, "Monsieur, that is no business of yours; and if it were, I would jump out of the window sooner than tell you!" Sixty-eight seemed to be the period beyond which, to the last, she never owned that she had passed, and it was very amusing to see how cleverly she kept to this date. Her friends would sometimes maliciously try to entrap her into betraying her age, but they never succeeded. One of them tells me that he never knew her to fail to make the subtraction instantly and correctly. For instance, if he said, "Why, dear Madame Mohl, that was fifty years ago!" she would reply, "Yes, so it was; I was just eighteen at the time"; or, "Why, it must be sixty years since that happened"; "Yes, I remember I was then a child eight years old."

There was no surer way of provoking her anger than by alluding, even inferentially, to her real age. Count Walsh, when he met her for the first time as Madame Mohl, said to her, "Madame, as we are both of us very old, perhaps you could tell me something of a compatriot of yours, to whose house I was taken some fifty odd years ago by Thiers. She was a Miss Clarke, one of the most charming persons I ever met." The dear lady blushed like a girl, painfully divided between the pleasure of being so flatteringly remembered and the vexation

of having her age thus brought home to her.

Madame Mohl had an old friend, Mademoiselle Joséphine R—, who was a great trial to her in this respect. The two old ladies had been children together, and had painted together at the Louvre, and studied at the same *ateliers*; but Mademoiselle Joséphine, far from being ashamed of her age, took a proper pride in it, and was apt to boast of having seen Robespierre. She would call out to Madame Mohl in her deep guttural voice, "You remember, my dear, we were painting such a picture during the Hundred Days!" or, "Do you remember the day we went to see the flowers at Malmaison while the Empress Joséphine was there?"

These terrible "do-you-remembers" used to make Madame Mohl perfectly furious. "Joséphine raves!" she would say in an angry *sotto voce* to the company.

Not long before his death Thiers met her at the house of a friend, and reminded her that they had not met since 1836, just forty years before. She was exceedingly annoyed, and when the old statesman was gone she said to her hostess, "The old fool is off his head; he does not know what he is talking about; he has made a mistake of twenty years!"

Her feminine weakness about hiding her age was perhaps the only foolish trait of that essential youthfulness that Madame Mohl retained to the end. An incapacity for growing old sometimes includes an incapacity for growing wise, for growing in many things that should keep pace with the advance of years; but if, while these autumnal growths progress the green spring-tide of youth remains unfaded, then the charm of the combination is perfect. Madame Mohl possessed it in a singular degree.*—*Kathleen O'Meara.*

THE POETRY OF DRESS.

A sweet disorder in the dress
Kindles in clothes a wantonness:—
A lawn about the shoulders thrown
Into a fine distraction,—
An erring lace, which here and there
Enthralls the crimson stomacher,—
A cuff neglectful, and thereby
Ribbands to flow confusedly,—
A winning wave, deserving note,
In the tempestuous petticoat,—
A careless shoe-string, in whose tie
I see a wild civility,—
Do more bewitch me, than when art
Is too precise in every part.

—Robert Herrick.

* Madame Mohl: Her Salon and Her Friends. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Biography. The name of Charles Grandison Finney* occupies an honorable place in the series, *American Religious Leaders*. The influence of this liberal, broad-minded man in securing an opening for woman's equal education with man, and for the college education of negroes, is proved to have been supplemented with able administrative ability that helped to guide these issues into favorable currents. The account of the life and work of this strong Christian leader is worth perusal.—The autobiography, diary, and correspondence† of James Freeman Clarke has been gathered into one volume. It includes many things of interest in themselves and certainly of interest to the friends and admirers of this leader of opinion. His bold advance into the clear atmosphere of independent thought makes him an object of expectant observation to many who dared not or did not care to follow his flight. Containing numerous little sketches of persons, places, and travels, and brilliant aphorisms of his authorship, the book will be acceptable to many readers.—The book entitled "Henry Ward Beecher: A Study,"‡ conveys to the reader a round idea of the childhood, the life, character, and influence of this great man. The sketch interests by an attraction of its own. Without depressing by the customary biographical funeral hushedness, it constantly impresses the great loss which has come to the people through the death of this teacher. Just enough of his "Addresses" are given to create a hunger for more.—The fund of actual personal facts collected in regard to Louis Cass is meager; but his life was so bound up in the progress of the nation that his history|| can be read between the lines of the annals of his times. Indeed the book might be said to be a history of the Union in the time of Lewis Cass, as it relates considerable of everybody else, in connection with him. These allusions, however, are given to set forth the influence of the

man in question and are among those historical references which cannot be too frequently noticed.

Religious. "My Note-Book: Fragmentary Studies in Theology and Subjects Adjacent Thereto,"* is a collection of pure thought gems. Some are of less value than others and some are not polished, but all the wealth of mind is put into the gems themselves. Nothing has been dissipated on the ever expensive and ever changing styles of setting or of linking them together into a connected whole; hence one is not obliged to spend the time and labor of reading for the entire mass in order to enjoy one or two, but can choose them out and set them at will in the memory.—"The Professor's Letters,"† written to a young girl for her religious improvement and instruction, are pointed with the kindest feeling. As a rule they are wholesome, and quietly soothing, like a voice with more carrying power than noise. They are so full of refined thought that the slight monotony in style will be easily relieved by reading them piecemeal.—The interesting and edifying collection of Sunday afternoon discourses‡ with young men, by the Rev. Dr. Weaver, cannot fail to impress favorably the reader's judgment with its common sense and utility.—The following title page is a long one, but absolutely necessary to convey an exact idea of the aim and scope of the book: "The Doctrine of a Future Life from a Scriptural, Philosophical, and Scientific Point of View, including especially A Discussion of Immortality, the Intermediate State, the Resurrection, and Final Retribution."|| The arguments are clear and direct, although some are based upon assumed premises. The exegeses are interesting, pointed, and instructive, furnishing rich food for thought. The chapters re-written from lectures delivered and improved many times are models of their kind. Vagueness, redundancy, and reiteration, frequent accompaniments of works of this character, are noticeably

*Charles Grandison Finney. By G. Frederick Wright, D.D., LL.D. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Price, \$1.25.

†James Freeman Clarke. By Edward Everett Hale. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡Henry Ward Beecher: A Study of his Personality, Career, and Influence in Public Affairs. By John R. Howard. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. Price, 75 cts.

||Lewis Cass. By Andrew C. McLaughlin. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Price, \$1.25.

*My Note-Book. By Austin Phelps, D.D., LL.D. New York: Scribner's Sons. Price \$1.50.

†The Professor's Letters. By Theophilus Parsons. Boston: Roberts Brothers. Price, \$1.00.

‡Looking Forward for Young Men: Their Interest and Success. By the Rev. George Sumner Weaver, D.D. New York: Fowler and Wells Co. Price, \$1.00.

||The Doctrine of a Future Life. By James Strong, S.T.D., LL.D. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. Price, 60 cts.

absent.—The "Primer of Darwinism and Organic Evolution"* is one of the best books on the subject that have appeared. It sets forth in a remarkably clear manner this very important subject, and has picketed and guarded it on every side by statistics, without allowing it to become tedious. Those who would approach the subject but who have been separated from it by an ignorance of natural history, will be enabled to leap over the barrier. The book is easy and entertaining with numerous appropriate illustrations. The language is so simple and unassuming that it is almost lost sight of in view of the great truths which it heralds. Many who through a cursory knowledge of it thought the theory of Darwinism irreverent and irreligious will discover their mistake upon reading the book.

Literature and Criticism. A plea for realism, or rather an attack on idealism, is made by

Mr. Howells in his book on "Criticism and Fiction."† Basing his views on the principle that all true art "is never anything but the reflection of nature," he calls upon fiction to "cease to lie about life and to portray men and women as they are." Paradoxically interesting as Mr. Howells succeeds in making his fault-finding, the reader cannot fail to be rather ludicrously impressed with the enormity of his undertaking. To clip the wings of imagination so as to prevent its ever adventuring—and especially in that most enticing field, human nature—farther reaches than those of plain reality is to attempt the impossible.—A quite exhaustive criticism of George Meredith's works‡ is the book of essays purporting to treat of "some characteristics" marking the style of this English novelist. Unfortunately the style of the critic is so involved that it is only after long floundering about in a stream of the haziest subtleties that the line of his purpose can be discovered. That purpose is to give to Meredith the high homage he so well deserves and to point out his rightful claims to it. The critic's taste is good, his perception fine, his judgment sound as relates to the matters he is discussing; had he expressed his logical deductions in simple and direct language he would have increased greatly the attraction and the worth of

the book.—"Notes on English Literature"* will be found a good guide book to those seeking instruction as to what or how to read. The author, taking the stand that literature no more than any science can be learned from a textbook, aims by a simple topical arrangement to help the inquirer to go to work for himself and not to be content merely to take the deductions made by others who have explored the grounds before him.—A delightful little volume for French scholars is the collection of the popular songs of France,† which is printed in the series of Knickerbocker Nuggets. The appropriate quaint illustrations make the book as far as its outward form goes an unusually attractive one even in this beautiful series. These dainty bits of folklore, embodying much social history and reflecting the manners of the times, possess a distinct charm of their own, which can be enjoyed only in the original.

Fiction.

THE crisis in the condition of Spanish affairs at the time of the discovery of America, resulting from the political relations of Spain with other countries, from the war with the Moors, and from the stage of science at that time, offers a wealth of material which has been drawn upon to make a charming historical novel.‡ The warp of reality giving body and elegance to the whole is so interwoven with the threads of romance as to add brightness and airiness and also real worth to the historical value, because the romance itself is true in so much as it furnishes a picture of the times. The book is on good paper and nicely illustrated but only paper bound.—In the romance entitled "From Shadow to Sunlight,"§ the heroine is not very interesting; the hero is well portrayed, but so joyless and erratic has been his life that an acquaintance with it yields little pleasure. The book though containing much that is charming, beautiful, and instructive, is monotonous in style and invites skipping.—"What's Bred in the Bone"¶ is one novel more added to the long list which wind

*Notes on English Literature. By Fred Parker Emery. Boston: Ginn & Company.

†Chansons Populaires de la France. Edited with Introduction and Notes by Thomas Frederick Crane, A.M. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, \$1.50.

‡Columbia: A Story of the Discovery of America. By John R. Musick. New York: Worthington Company. Price, 75 cts.

§From Shadow to Sunlight. By the Marquis of Lorne, G. C. M. G. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

¶What's Bred in the Bone. By Grant Allen. Chicago and New York: Rand, McNally & Company. Price, 25 cts.

*A Primer of Darwinism. By J. Y. Bergen, Jr., and Fanny D. Bergen. Boston: Lee and Shepard. Price, \$1.25.

†Criticism and Fiction. By W. D. Howells. New York: Harper and Brothers.

‡George Meredith. By Richard Le Gallienne. With a Bibliography by John Lane. New York: United States Book Co. Price, \$2.00.

circumstances around the old familiar plot whose lengthy time of survival testifies to its great popularity. A titled young man weds a poor girl. Cruel fate necessitates a concealment of the marriage. Soon his wife dies leaving him with heirs. Afterwards he marries one approved by the lord, his father, and the son of this second marriage is the supposed heir. His oldest son is reared in poverty and ignorance of his social station, but comes into a knowledge of his fortune just in time to secure a beautiful wife. This fashion of story must develop thrilling incidents in its course. The particular volume at hand contains no objectionable features and is

very entertaining.—"Peter Pert's Outings" recounts the adventures of an ambitious woman who won her husband out of the old ruts. The persons introduced, all types from the ordinary walks of life, are shrewd, original, and sharp-tongued people humorously inclined. A love tale is adroitly woven into the plot. All Assembly goers will recognize and enjoy the description of the visit to the Assembly, and many suggestions will be found for those who are perplexed in carrying out their ambitions.

*Peter Pert's Outings. By Mrs. Della Thomas Hughson. Buffalo, N. Y.: H. H. Otis.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT NEWS FOR AUGUST, 1891.

HOME NEWS.—August 1. Death of Commander McGregor of the Navy.—The President makes public the reciprocity treaty of San Domingo.

August 2. Death of Judge H. B. Staples of Massachusetts.

August 5. Washington, D. C., selected by the Grand Army of the Republic at Detroit as the place of its next encampment.

August 6. Captain John Palmer, of Albany, elected Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.

August 9. Death of Judge Ogden Hoffman of the United States District Court in California.

August 10. Resignation of the Hon. Frederick Douglass, minister to Hayti.

August 11. American Society of Microscopists begins its fourteenth annual meeting at Washington, D. C.—Christian Ruppert of Washington, D. C., bequeaths \$250,000 for a home for the aged and infirm.

August 12. Death of James Russell Lowell.—Death of George Jones, proprietor of the *New York Times*.—Opening of the fifth annual convention of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations in Washington, D. C.

August 13. Organization of the Musical Directors' Association in New York City.

August 14. Death of Mrs. James K. Polk.

August 19. First session of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Washington, D. C.—Dedication of the Bennington Battle Monument, at Bennington, Vt.

August 21. Death of Gen. W. L. Bragg, Interstate Commerce Commissioner.—Severe storms and earthquake shocks in the West and South.

August 24. American Society of Geologists meet in Washington, D. C.

August 26. Meeting of the American Bar Association in Washington, D. C.

August 29. Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes celebrates his eighty-second birthday.

FOREIGN NEWS.—August 6. A destructive flood at Melbourne, Australia, causes a loss of \$2,000,000.

August 8. Eighty-second birthday of Lord Tennyson observed.—The National Labor Association meets at Barcelona.

August 9. The Prince of Wales opens the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography in London.—Beginning of the International Geographical Congress at Berne.

August 11. Grand Duke Alexis received with popular enthusiasm at Paris.

August 12. Opening of the Twelfth International Convention of the Young Men's Christian Association in Amsterdam.

August 13. The King of Denmark gives a luncheon to the World's Fair Commissioners.

August 15. Services in Westminster Abbey by Cannon Farrar in memory of James Russell Lowell.—Strike of ten thousand Welsh tin and iron miners.

August 17. The International Labor Congress opens in Brussels.—A new Haytian cabinet is formed.

August 20. A cyclone in Martinique causes great loss of life and property.

August 24. Death of Mr. Raikes, the British Postmaster-General.

August 18. Valparaiso surrenders to the Chilean insurgent army.

